The Nation

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Summary of the News

Rumor has been more than usually busy during the past week with the possibility of other nations of Europe being added to the list of belligerents. Greece, Italy, and Rumania have all been mentioned in the news as though their entry into the war were but a matter of days. It is hardly necessary to point out that reports like these are to be accepted with considerable caution. Of the three states mentioned Rumania is the most likely to abandon its neutral position. The frequent declarations of statesmen like M. Jonescu that Rumania's participation in the war is only a matter of time, although they are in no way official utterances, may yet be taken as indications of the trend of at any rate a considerable section of Rumanian sentiment. In the last week a more definite motive for belligerency has been supplied in the occupation by Russia of Bukowina, involving the approach of Russian troops to the very frontier of Rumania, and her incursion into Transylvania.

These are the provinces long coveted by Rumania and peopled largely by inhabitants of kindred blood. That Rumania intended to undertake an invasion of Bukowina when the spring should have rendered the mountain passes a less formidable obstacle to an attacking force has been freely asserted. Now we hear of a feverish activity in military preparations, of provision being made for the equipment of an army of half a million, of three-quarters of a million men. There is no reason to doubt that military preparations are going forward as fast and as efficiently as they can be accomplished. That Rumania could immediately put into the field an army of 500,000 men is hardly credible, and it is anything but certain that she intends at the present moment to participate in the war at all. The moment, however, when Russian forces have swept over Bukowina and have gained important successes against the Turkish arms in Transcaucasia doubtless appears propitious to the war party, and it would not be surprising if Rumania should act on her own initiative rather than wait for that of Italy, and should decide to attack Austria on a third side. In that case the addition of the small but highly efficient Rumanian army to the enemies of the Dual Monarchy might not improbably prove the determining factor in the defeat of that sorely harassed empire.

On the subject of Italy also the news nerves of the world have been tense. The Hodeida incident has not yet been definitely settled, but dispatches from Rome on Tuesday encouraged the belief that the Ottoman Government is prepared to concede all that Italy has demanded in the way of reparation. This has included not only the satisfaction from Turkey which we have recorded previously in these columns, but also—that breeder of international difficulties—a salute to the flag. This last demand the Porte has appeared unwilling to grant and the situation during the past week has been somewhat critical. According to recent reports, however, the matter is now in process of settlement, and it seems probable that this particular incident will shortly be closed. Nevertheless, it is significant of Italy's determination to be prepared for all eventualities that Italian troops, according to dispatches from Athens, have been sent by way of Greece to reinforce the garrisons of the Aegean islands, which Italy has held in trust since the termination of the Tripolitan war.

Concerning the Italian occupation of Avlona there have been no further developments. It was reported in *Il Secolo* last week that a protest against the Italian action had been lodged by Austria, and that Italy had returned a reply in "firm, energetic terms," but there has been no official confirmation of the report, and whether the protest has been made or not, it is obvious that Austria has not the means to enforce it.

So far as Greece is concerned, it is stated, apparently on good authority, that an agreement has been arrived at with Italy in regard to Albania, Italy having undertaken to protect the nationals of all countries in Durazzo. The relations of Greece and Turkey are stated to be growing more strained as a result of the alleged persecution of Greeks in Asia Minor.

President Wilson made a political speech, virtually the first of his Administration, at Indianapolis, on Jackson Day, January 9. Comment on this not too happy oration will be found in our editorial columns.

A further development of the expression of opinion which the Senate appears determined to give on the question of independent Presidential appointments was seen in the unanimous rejection by the Senate on January 6 of the President's nominee for the post of Federal Marshal for the Eastern District of Missouri.

It was officially announced in Washington last week that the problem of settling the indebtedness of the United States to Europe, which was the occasion recently of the visit of Sir George Paish, acting on behalf of the British Treasury, to this country, has settled itself, the heavy exports from this country, together with a considerable shrinkage in imports, having adjusted the balance of trade which three months ago was so unfavorable to the United States.

The negro exclusion amendment to the Immigration bill was rejected by the House on January 7 by a vote of 252 to 75. On January 9 an agreement was reached on the bill in conference of the two houses, the Senate amendments barring negroes and exempting Belgian farmers from the literacy test and certain other requirements being eliminated. The report of the bill was submitted to the House on Saturday of last week and to the Senate on Monday.

An accident occurred in the New York subway on January 6 which might well have been attended with more serious consequences than was actually the case. As a result of a short circuit traffic was held up in the height of the morning "rush," and fire smouldering in the insulation tubes caused the tunnel to be filled with smoke. There was a panic among the passengers in the crowded trains in which one person was killed and more than two hundred injured, either by the crush or by being overcome by smoke.

In the clash of a war which has even given rise to considerable differences of opinion between the United States and Great Britain on certain questions, it is pleasant to take notice of the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of peace between the two countries which took place at New Orleans on January 8, the anniversary of the battle of Chalmette. In this connection it is appropriate to notice the tenor of the communications, indicative of friendliness and good-will, exchanged between the two countries on the subject of neutral shipping. On the reply of Great Britain to the communication of the State Department protesting against the undue detainment of American merchant ships more detailed comment will be found elsewhere.

The proposed constitutional amendment for woman suffrage was rejected in the House on Tuesday by a vote of 174 to 204.

The first quarterly meeting of the Advisory Council of Federal Reserve Banks will be held in Washington on January 18, 19, and 20.

The five months' session of the French Parliament opened on Tuesday. The session, it is probable, will not be continuous, but sittings will be held at frequent intervals.

The Dutch war loan of 275,000,000 guilders ($110,000,000), it was announced on Monday, has been a complete success, 402,000,000 guilders having been subscribed.

The London *Daily Chronicle* published a dispatch from Sir Ernest Shackleton on Monday stating that his expedition in the Endurance had sailed on that day from South Georgia. The start of the South Polar expedition, Sir Ernest said, was delayed by ice, and he did not expect to cross the continent until next season.

In Mexico, the only development which immediately concerns the United States has been the acceptance by Villa of Gen. Scott's plan for the neutralization of the port of Naco and the withdrawal of troops of both factions from the neighborhood of the frontier. The agreement was signed by Villa on January 9. It already had the signatures of Gen. Benjamin Hill, the Carranzista commander, Gen. Elias Calles, his adjutant, and Gov. José Maria Maytorena, the Villista Governor of Sonora.

The deaths of the week include: The Rev. Charles J. H. Ropes, January 5; Roswell Morse Shurtleff, Dr. Dudley Peter Allen, the Rev. Revere F. Weidner, January 6; Robert Ives Gammell, John Denison Champlin, January 8; Don Gonzalo de Quesada, January 9; Marshall P. Wilder, January 10; Prof. Katherine Coman, January 11.

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The Week

The essential facts about Sir Edward Grey's note to Ambassador Page are that it fully admits the principles asserted in the American protest concerning interference with neutral shipments, and that, while disputing several points as to the application of those principles, its tone throughout is in the highest degree friendly and conciliatory. The note is preliminary, and the final answer will go into details which are now barely indicated; and it remains to be seen what degree of difficulty will be left for further adjustment after that answer is received. At two points the phrasing is such as to suggest possibilities that are not quite clear. One is where a reservation is made for abnormal interference when "such interference is manifestly an imperative necessity." The other occurs in connection with the declaration of intention to adhere to the rule of not detaining foodstuffs in the absence of "the presumption that they are intended for the armed forces of the enemy or the enemy Government"; it being here added that the British Government cannot give "an unlimited and unconditional undertaking" to this effect, in view of "the departure of those against whom we are fighting from hitherto accepted rules of civilization and humanity, and the uncertainty as to the extent to which such rules may be violated by them in future." But it will be time to worry about these hypothetical possibilities when they present themselves as realities. In the main range of the question, Sir Edward Grey's note gives excellent promise of an early and satisfactory understanding between the two governments.

Secretary Garrison's statement before the Senate Committee on the Philippines was chiefly devoted to showing that the advance towards more complete self-government is simply one more step in a process to which we have been pledged from the beginning. This process has actually been promoted with more or less rapidity at every stage in our occupation, and has been emphatically approved in the utterances of Presidents, Secretaries of War, and insular Governors, throughout our occupation of the archipelago. Nor does there seem to be much serious opposition to the step now proposed. It is the preamble, with its affirmation of "the purpose of the people of the United States to withdraw their sovereignty over the Philippine Islands and to recognize their independence as soon as a stable government is established therein" that is the chief object of attack; and of this Mr. Garrison says that it simply "sums up and states that which has been frequently stated on behalf of the United States of America by those speaking for that Government." But, inasmuch as the alleged incendiary effect of the preamble upon the Filipinos, as shown in recent "uprisings," has furnished a large part of the ammunition of those who are fighting the bill, the following little colloquy at the hearing is interesting:

"How about this recent revolution?" Mr. Garrison was asked.

"It was no more significant," replied Mr. Garrison, "than the recent attempt of the I. W. W. to force a way into the churches of New York."

And that's the way it looks to the man in the street, too, now that the "revolution" has passed into history—or at least out of the newspapers.

One of the most pleasing aspects of the rejection by the House, last week, of the Senate amendment to the Immigration bill, excluding from the United States immigrants of "the black, or African, race," was the fact that opposition to this intolerant and indefensible measure was led by Southern Democrats. It is particularly gratifying that the man who spoke most forcibly against this unwarranted reflection upon the "millions of Americans of African descent" was a Democrat from Alabama, Booker Washington's State, and the home of Tuskegee. In general, the debate brought out a becoming indignation against the action of the Senate in fastening such an abhorrent clause upon the bill, and the final vote against it, 252 to 75, ought to make some Senatorial ears tingle. One motive of the House may have been to remove from the bill a feature so offensive that it would have compelled a Presidential veto. Yet the mistaken and insincere literacy test remains, which of itself ought to lead Mr. Wilson to refuse his signature to the bill. However this may be, it was a manly and patriotic thing for the House to set its foot so heavily upon the foolish and unfair and treaty-breaking amendment aimed at our colored citizens.

The Danbury Hatters case has, throughout its history, been the object of unusual interest. It was through the first decision rendered by the Supreme Court relating to the case, now nearly seven years ago, that an authoritative expression was obtained from the highest court in the land to the effect that a labor-union boycott of the kind here involved—a standard form of "unfair-list" boycott—is a violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust act, being a restraint of interstate commerce in the sense contemplated by that act. The decision of the Supreme Court last week is not only a reaffirmation of that judgment in point of principle, but is important as settling the question of the responsibility of members of labor unions for acts done by the union, of a nature that must of necessity be within the knowledge of the members. "It is a tax upon credulity," said Justice Holmes, in handing down the Court's decision, "to ask any one to believe that members of labor unions of that kind did not know that the primary and secondary boycott and the use of 'we don't patronize' or the 'unfair' list were expected to be employed in the effort to unionize these shops." That no opinion was filed expressing dissent from the strong language used by Justice Holmes, is significant.

As for the effect of the labor clauses in the Clayton Anti-Trust act upon similar cases in the future, this appears to us to be open to a certain amount of question. Section 6, which directly relates to the status of labor unions, can have, we should say, no force whatever in the matter; for the language of the bill as finally passed is that "nothing in the anti-Trust laws shall be construed . . . to forbid or restrain individual members of such organizations from *lawfully* carrying out the legitimate objects thereof"; the word here italicized, having been absent in the bill as originally introduced, acquires convincing significance as excluding the intent of making that lawful which was otherwise unlawful. The only thing, so far as we can see, that does affect the boycott question is section 18, which declares, among other things, that no restraining order or injunction in a labor dispute shall prevent persons "from ceasing to patronize or to employ any party to such dispute, or persuading others by peaceful and lawful means so to do." But it must be remarked, first, that this has reference only to the question of injunctions, and does not of itself legitimate the thing against which the injunction is forbidden; secondly, that it appears to apply only to the *primary*, and not to the secondary, boycott, since it limits its terms to a "party to such dispute"; and finally that in this, as in the other clause, the words "and lawful" were inserted as a deliberately adopted amendment, the original bill having required only that the "means" be "peaceful."

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The decision of a Federal court declaring the Arizona Anti-Alien Employment act unconstitutional is a welcome assertion of fundamental rights. It will doubtless be carried to the Supreme Court, and the decision of the case by that body may be made the occasion of a definition of Constitutional limitations on legislation of this general character which will be of great value. In the meantime it is interesting to note that the Federal Court at San Francisco brushed aside the plea that the restriction upon the employability of aliens was a "police regulation," declaring that under guise of such regulation "the State was in effect depriving the complainant of the right to labor." Whether this view, relating as it does to a prohibition imposed upon private employers against employing more than a certain percentage of alien labor, would likewise condemn as unconstitutional a prohibition of alien labor upon public works, is an interesting question. As for the immediate effect of the decision, its allaying of apprehensions of difficulty entertained by diplomatists at Washington is, in the present international situation, quite as interesting as its direct bearing upon Arizona.

It has been frequently remarked of late that the sobering influence of the European war, and the momentous economic problems which arose from it, had brought our governmental councils to a sane and statesmanlike view of financial affairs. The promptness, wisdom, and vigor with which that emergency was met, the efficiency with which the Government and the country's financial institutions coöperated, and the decisiveness with which the nostrums of excited politicians were rejected—all this indicated return to practical intelligence in dealing with such matters. We believe that the mood of Congress is to-day largely of that character. But no such change of heart ever occurs without angry protest from the leaders in the campaign of agitation which has been abandoned. It is to this general attitude that must be ascribed such occurrences as Senator La Follette's attack on the railway rate decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The Senator was entitled to disagree with that decision, and nobody could prevent his offering "resolutions" about it. But when his resolution provides that the Commission's decision shall not go into force, and that the same Commission must hear all the evidence over again and render a new decision, the incident becomes one of psychological rather than legislative interest. Neither Congress nor the people will take it seriously.

Precisely the same comment is suggested by the remarks of another statesman on the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago. There has been legitimate debate as to how far a director of such an institution must personally represent the group of banks who voted for him. That is a question for the National Reserve Board. But the attack on the directorate of the Chicago bank—begun, ignominiously enough, by one Senator's complaint that there were not enough Democrats among its employees—culminates in the profound exposition of Representative Lindbergh that the Money Trust has got the bank; that its lowering of the rediscount rate is merely a step towards creating expanded credit, and that when this has been accomplished, the bank will fulfil its wicked purposes by raising the rate again and "checking worldwide prosperity." Discussion of this kind of bedlamite talk is superfluous; nor can one imagine Congress as listening seriously to it. Even at the height of the agitation of 1911, when the same statesman told his colleagues that a few unscrupulous financiers could "bring on a panic any day that such would suit their selfish ends"—adding, with true forensic acumen, that "we need no evidence of the fact"—one does not remember that the House was formidably impressed. Congress had learned, even then, who the oracles were that could not keep King Charles and the memorial out of their heads.

We in this country are familiar with the boastful phrase, "Where the flag has once gone up it must never be hauled down." The Germans vary it. Herr Basserman, the leader of the National Liberals in the Reichstag, is quoted by the *Vorwärts* as saying: "We shall hold fast for all time the countries which have been fertilized by German blood." He adds: "Over and above that, let us acquire all that we need." Such utterances as these are not to be taken too seriously. That they are not, even in Germany, is certain. True, the Government has appointed civil administrators for parts of Poland occupied by German armies, and also in Belgium. Similarly, as if in reply, the French authorities have restored, on paper, their ancient Department of the Haut-Rhin, and have named a *préfet* for it. But all these things are no more than gestures of defiance in time of war. All the countries concerned are well aware that the final settlement will be made in complete disregard of these assumed acts of sovereignty over a conquered region.

German apologists in this country would do well if they abandoned discussion about Belgium and devoted themselves to the Russian bureaucracy and its treatment of the "foreign" races. Russia has been from the beginning the weak member in the moral case of the Allies, and the stories that are now coming out of Russia are putting Allied sympathies to the strain. Only bureaucratic tyranny and stupidity combined can explain why Petrograd should just now be threatening the Finns. Worse still is the case of the Jews, of whom scores of thousands are now fighting the Czar's battles. Against the families of Jewish reservists at the front the Government rigidly enforces the restrictive laws of residence, so that a large part of the Jewish population confined to the "Pale," over the larger part of which the tide of battle has been rolling back and forth, is denied the elementary human right of escape. In Belgium, East Prussia, and Galicia the unhappy population may at least flee from the horrors of battle. In Poland the Jewish civil population must apparently stay and suffer. It requires great hopefulness to keep on waiting for the "new" Russia to emerge from a victorious war.

It appears that the French war-poets are not so different, after all, from the English or German or Russian. From Rostand to the humblest poet of the Dordogne, all pens have been busy. An article in a recent number of the *Débats* gives a summary of this impromptu war poetry. Even the patriotic reviewer admits that it cannot be ranked high artistically; yet he remains of the conviction that "we should have to despair of French poetry if this overwhelming and terrible war did not some day evoke an immortal song. It needs a Homer or at least a Victor Hugo." Failing them, it has to put up for the present with the usual run of exclamatory or vindictive writers. The samples given in the *Débats* have mostly to do with the "barbarians," or with "imprecations" directed against Guillaume, whom one poet describes as an "outcast of a bloody race." There have been several *chansons* celebrating the French artillery, of which the following is a specimen:

Chantons le soixtant' quinze,
Vive le son, vive le son!
Chantons le soixant' quinze,
Vive le son du canon!

Writers of humorous verse about the war have not been lacking in Paris. Here are

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some punning lines upon the name of the French commander-in-chief, taken from the *Figaro:*

"Joffre! . . ." La Turquie étonnée
S'informe auprès des combattants:
—Joffre quoi?—Joffre . . . une tournée
Vous verrez çà dans quelque temps.

In the glad New Year, the fancy of some California newspapers lightly turns to thoughts of war. The state of mind responsible for the Japanese bogey is almost comprehensible after a survey of the Los Angeles *Times's* comment on Anglo-American relations. The situation "is very grave." It looks "as if England were trying to entrap us or force us into a war with the Allied Powers." She has everything to gain and little to lose, as the *Times* demonstrates by a count of our sackable ports. Before we could organize defence "the Allies could raid and place under tribute twenty-two American ocean port and lake port cities, powerless to offer any effective resistance. That we could organize an army that would . . . drive out the invaders goes without saying. But . . . before they retired they might leave Boston and New York, and Philadelphia and Baltimore, and San Francisco and Seattle and Tacoma a mass of smoking ruins." The *Times*, be it said, does not base on these facts a plea for more battleships; it believes that "unless Great Britain is determined to absolutely force an unjust war upon us" conflict may still be averted by an embargo. After this there may still be persons who think some California journals biassed and excitable in discussing the Oriental menace.

If all ex-Presidents were like Mr. Taft, the old question what shall we do with them would soon cease to be asked. What better use can an ex-President make of his time, after laying down the grievous load of Presidential responsibility, than to touch upon all sorts of public questions in a spirit of free and shrewd judgment and of genial humor? The humorous sallies that he used to essay while still in the White House were apt to be somewhat heavy-footed; but he has evidently doffed something more than physical avoirdupois since the days of Ballinger and the Payne-Aldrich tariff. His latest happy stroke of humor we find in a local report of his speech at Philadelphia last week:

> Of Col. Roosevelt, he told how once, in the New York Legislature, Tim Campbell had tried to get Roosevelt to vote for a bill that would have been unconstitutional, and urged in argument, "What's the Constitution between friends?" And Mr. Taft added:
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> "I have some slight suspicion that Mr. Roosevelt has veered around towards that view himself."

It would take a great deal of heavy artillery to hit the Colonel's position on the "recall of decisions" as hard as does this bit of offhand sniping.

Representative Palmer's statement before a Senate committee that it cost $1,000,000 to elect Penrose will leave Pennsylvania Republicans wondering whether it was worth the money, and every one else curious whether actual violation of the State's Corrupt Practices act can be proved. The assertions of the defeated Democratic candidate are vague. Two State bodies and one Philadelphia committee, he points out, admit having spent $432,000; the county committees bring the total to $750,000; and the liquor interests behind Penrose are known to have had $750,000 to draw upon. He states what will generally be felt true—that it is impossible to spend over $1,000,000 in a single State election legitimately. But specific proof still remains to be adduced that "bribery of voters was common," and that "cases are known where voters asked the judges of election for their pay." A full investigation by the Senate committee is the more desirable because the Popular Government League in Washington last week heard allegations of corrupt practices in Pennsylvania from Representative M. Clyde Kelly; in Indiana from T. F. Thieme; and in Michigan from representative William M. McDonald. Meanwhile, it is interesting to have some estimate of what the saloon and the protectionists think it worth to have Penrose in the Senate—especially as his influence on legislation is likely to be small under a Democratic régime.

Nobody is going to say much about Blease's final burst of pardons, rounding out his record with a record-breaker. Upon the serious side of the performance, there is nothing to be said but what is obvious and what has been said of his previous exhibitions in this line; and the performance has certainly lost all edge as a joke. But there is an interesting bit of psychology connected with the way in which this Governor's preposterous abuse of the pardoning power has been received by the country at large. It might have been supposed that this virtual nullification, in whole or in part, of thousands of court sentences by the arbitrary will of one man would start up a national movement for the abolition of the pardoning power of Governors, perhaps even of Presidents. That it has not done so is evidence of American level-headedness—one is tempted to say also of the American sense of humor. Everybody seems to feel that here is a freak performance which is hardly likely ever to be repeated, and in which the ridiculous so preponderates over the serious side that, somehow or other, one refuses to take it up as a real problem.

The quickening pace of life has left little opportunity for "entertainers" like the late Marshall P. Wilder. The day of the one-man show is gone. No individual is capable of supplying an evening's amusement for a modern audience, avid of variety and the frequently recurrent "punch." In the remoter West, where fashions change more slowly, Mr. Wilder continued to be an entire programme in himself, but before sophisticated urban audiences he was compelled in later years to take his turn with other vaudeville performers, thus subjecting himself to conditions which even a Secretary of State has been forced to recognize. And yet the one-man entertainer was the continuator of a great tradition which goes back to Dickens, who carried his audience through the entire gamut from laughter to tears. There are very few performers nowadays who are expected thus to play on the emotions. The rôle has become specialized. The vaudeville humorist must be funny only. Even as an after-dinner speaker he is permitted just enough serious comment to allow a rest between laughs; his function, as a matter of fact, being to lighten up the intervals between the professor of political economy who precedes him and the commissioner of charities and correction who follows.

The evolution of the automobile, like other forms of social development, may be traced through the various strata of the comic journals. The changes in motor construction and motor prices are paralleled by changes in motor humor. There are no more pictures of people on their backs under automobiles. That was the era of novelty, when it was difficult to make an automobile go. There is a sharp decline in the pictures of undergaduates going at sixty miles an hour. That was the era of nuisance when it was difficult to make an automobile stop. Pictures and text to-day deal with farmers, clergymen, and the grocer's family on Sunday, in their astonishingly cheap and absurdly safe motor wagons. That is the era of necessity. Only one step more is needed to the era of the utter commonplace, when there will be no more humor in an automobile than there is in a day coach or a buggy.

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THE PRESIDENT'S SPEECH.

If to stir up criticism and create a buzz of comment be the test of a successful political speech, then President Wilson's Jackson Day speech at Indianapolis must be set down as a distinct success. There was nothing commonplace about it. It has been called a fighting speech. It was, at least, a fighting-back speech. The President was plainly retorting upon his political opponents. And the fact that he fell into something of the tone of campaign oratory at once raised the question whether he was not assuming an aggressive attitude in order to show that he meant to be again a candidate for the Presidency. But this is rather idle speculation. If Mr. Wilson desires another nomination, he can have it by reaching out his hand. It is not necessary for him, by speech or otherwise, to announce his purpose. Much more probably he had it in mind at Indianapolis to try to rally the spirits of his somewhat dejected party followers by making a good old-fashioned and slashing attack upon the Republicans.

President Wilson could not do this in a vulgar way. He had to seek out an intellectual basis for his assault; and he found it, or thought he found it, in the assertion that the Republican party is now without great "emotions," and "has not had a new idea for thirty years." He said that he affirmed this, not as a politician, but as "an historian." Well, other historians will, we think, give a different account of the matter. They will point out one progressive enactment after another which the Republicans did at least as much as the Democrats in devising and writing into law. More important than any of these minor claims, the Republican party, during the period which the President singles out, has to its credit the solid achievement of resisting and crushing a "new idea" of the Democratic party—namely, the free coinage of silver. That this would have broken down our national standard of value and seriously impaired the country's credit, was pointed out at the time by the most competent authorities, and is now generally admitted. It was an "idea" which Mr. Bryan helped to fix in the Democratic mind, and which fully justified the definition of the old Scotch philosopher, who said to a pestering and ignorant lady that idea was "the feminine of idiot." To have met and crushed this public danger may not be to have had a new idea; but it is at least to have stood valiantly by an old idea which the world cannot abandon without coming to grief. And the politician must have temporarily got the better of the historian, or else President Wilson would not have dismissed the work of the Republican party in the recent past so cavalierly.

One of the laudatory comments on Mr. Wilson's speech is that it was "finely phrased." As for good literary form, the President has led us always to expect it from him. But several times at Indianapolis he appeared to be letting himself be carried away by a phrase. There is no objection to a good phrase when it stands for realities. The crisper and more taking it is, when it represents the actual facts, the better. But it is always perilous to take a phrase devised to fit a given set of conditions and seek to apply it to a wholly different set. Thus the President speaks of the present fighting in Mexico as a struggle for "liberty." Now, the first revolution against Diaz may fairly have been so described. So might possibly the revolt against Huerta, which broke out before Wilson became President. But to picture what is going on now in Mexico—the sordid and ignoble squabbling among rival military chiefs for control of the Government—as a battling for liberty, taxes credulity. This does not impugn the wisdom of the President's policy of non-intervention. But it does raise a doubt in the thoughtful whether he is not only an accomplished maker of phrases, but also one apt to be led astray by them.

On the general nature and present status of political parties in this country, the President uttered a great deal of good sense. He defied the Republicans as not being, by their regular organization, powerful enough to carry the country, but instantly admitted that the same is true of the Democratic party. He spoke as a Democrat, but freely conceded that his party could not win the next election without the aid of the independent vote. His hope and ambition were to induce the great body of independent voters to support the Democratic party. Politically, the most significant part of the President's speech lies in this passage. It shows that he is meditating upon the party shiftings and realignments which are certain to follow the break-up and disappearance of the Progressive party. It is evident that he would like to inherit as large a part of its good will as possible. And it is altogether likely that he will shape his future course very largely with that in mind. A first indication is his sudden taking up with the plan of a Federal employment bureau. Good or bad, this has the look of being a sop to the moribund Progressives. But, frankly, it is doubtful if the majority of them can be lured to the side of the President. Republican they were, in large part, and all the signs are that Republican they will be again.

If the President's admirers feel any disappointment in his first political speech, after so long a silence, it is mainly because Woodrow Wilson essayed for a day to be Andrew Jackson. That is a rôle which he is not well fitted to play. Its temper is not congenial to him. And the effect upon the national audience of his attempting to assume the part is plainly surprise mixed with irritation.

THE SHIP-PURCHASE BILL.

The *Nation* does not wish to add to the sweeping charges and counter-charges made in connection with the bill before the Senate to put the United States in the shipping business. It is not a case for attributing bad motives, on one side or the other. Nor is anything gained by reckless assertions of fact. It has been confidently affirmed, for example, that American private capital was ready to come forward to seize the opportunity to create a merchant marine, and that it has been discouraged and repelled by the introduction of this bill. For this we have seen no real evidence, and we do not believe it to be true. But neither are some of the statements made by supporters of the bill to be trusted. There has been far too much loose talk and bandying of epithets. The bill ought to be studied in its full text, its actual proposals weighed, and a calm and deliberate judgment of it arrived at.

It is put forward avowedly as an emergency measure. Yet there is no assurance that its framers have carefully and intelligently studied the nature of the emergency which they profess that it is necessary to meet. The bill wears too much the air of having been drawn to fit conditions existing last August and September, and of having been clung to stubbornly despite great changes since that time. It is true that Secretary Redfield has gathered statistics going to show that there is a scarcity of tonnage and that rates are abnormally high. This, we believe, has been the case, and still is to a certain extent. But the real question to be considered is whether it did not necessarily grow out of the war, forcing, as it did, much higher insurance charges, and whether there are not reasons for the temporary disloca-

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tion of our ocean trade, wholly apart from the supply of ships. On this last point the Senate would do well to give heed to the detailed report made to the New York Chamber of Commerce last Thursday. It dealt specifically with our South American trade. It is about this that the advocates of the Ship-Purchase bill express chief anxiety. Now, the report covers the whole matter and shows conclusively, in our opinion, that the difficulty has been due, not at all to a lack of vessels to carry our products to South American countries, and to bring back their goods, but to the financial derangement caused in the republics to the south of us by the European war. It is the financing of the trade, not the ships to conduct it, that has been the great difficulty. The report affirms that there have been bottoms enough to take to the South Americans all that they are in a position to buy from us, and to bring to us what they are in a position to sell and we to buy. Many ships have actually sailed to our ports from those of South America in ballast, or with half-cargoes. If all this is true—and if the facts are much the same elsewhere—what becomes of the pretence of the bill that the Government must buy and sail merchant vessels "to meet the requirements of the foreign commerce of the United States"?

Even if one were to overlook all this, and to waive objections to the bill on the score of principle, one could not help feeling that the measure, as reported to the Senate, is a very glaring example of how not to do it. It is full of blind provisions. One or two inconsistencies stare from the text. And about the things which we most want to know, and which are vital to the whole plan, the bill says nothing whatever. For example, it does not tell us where the power is to be lodged to fix the routes on which the Government ships are to sail. All the seven seas are open to us. The bill speaks of "the trade between the Atlantic, Gulf, or Pacific ports of the United States and the ports of Central and South America and *elsewhere*." But who is to decide where the lines shall be established? On what theory, and in what relation to prevailing rates or to competition with private companies, are the rates to be fixed? The bill does not say.

Apparently, it would leave everything to a "shipping board," to consist of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Postmaster-General, and the Secretary of Commerce, operating in and through a mysterious "corporation." This corporation is to be "any corporation *now* or hereafter organized under the laws of the United States or of any State or of the District of Columbia." Why might not this mean the existing International Mercantile Marine Company? To be sure, its capital stock is over $100,000,000, and the bill provides, later on, that "the initial capital stock" shall not be over $10,000,000. Yet it may be increased "from time to time," on condition that the United States shall always hold 51 per cent. of the total. Really, it might be plausibly argued, or at least insinuated, that the bill is a scheme to reorganize the International Mercantile Marine Company with the aid of funds from the Treasury of the United States! We do not seriously pretend that this is purposed. Our only point is that almost anything would be possible under the vague and loose terms of the bill about the "corporation."

Upon the blanket—we might say, under the blanket—powers conferred, we can give space to only a few words. The corporation is to have for its object, with the aid of $10,000,000 outright from the Treasury, and of $30,000,000 more from the sale of United States bonds, "the purchase, *construction*, equipment, maintenance, and operation of merchant vessels." As if this were not broad enough, an amendment has been written into the bill giving power "to charter vessels, and to make charters or leases of any vessel or vessels owned by such corporation to any other corporation, firm, or individual." This large indefiniteness is truly amazing. The whole thing is in urgent need of sifting and more sharp defining. Talk about leaps into the dark! This bill is a leap into the abyss of Ocean and Old Night. If ever there was reason for scrutinizing debate, it has been furnished to the Senate by this measure; and we hope that it will be debated with all the ability and determination and pertinacity that can be mustered.

WORLD-CITIZENSHIP.

A noteworthy "greeting" to "Our Colleagues in Russia" has just been published by English authors. It is signed by more than a score of well-known names, not only writers with special competence to judge of Russian literature, like Mackenzie Wallace and the Garnetts and William Archer, but by poets, novelists, essayists, historians—in a word, England's brightest literary lights. Their purpose in issuing their manifesto is two-fold. They desire, in the first place, to resent and refute the charge that Russia is "barbarian." This is, however, a minor point in the dialectics of war. It would be easy to imagine a similar testimonial by Austrian writers to the literary glories of Germany, winding up with the exclamation: "And they call you 'Huns'!" The question of the fundamental civilization of any people, or of the justice of a national attitude in a given case, is obviously not to be settled by citing the works of imagination produced by a chosen few.

More is to be said for the main intent of this message of English writers to Russian. They give simple but moving expression to their sense of indebtedness to Russian literature. We cannot do better than quote:

> Many a writer among us can still call back from ten, or twenty, or thirty years ago the feeling of delight, and almost of bewilderment, with which he read his first Russian novel. Perhaps it was "Virgin Soil" or "Fathers and Sons," perhaps "War and Peace" or "Anna Karenina," perhaps "Crime and Punishment" or "The Idiot"; perhaps, again, it was the work of some author still living. But many of us then felt as our poet Keats felt on first reading Homer,
>
> Like some watcher of the skies
> When a new planet swims into his ken.

The argument is pushed much further than any mere gratification of intellectual curiosity. What is exalted is the "deep tenderness" of Russian writers, which "never derides but only pities and respects the unfortunate"; the "sincerity" which is not afraid of the truth; above all, the "ever-present sense of spiritual values behind the material." It is especially the latter which "enables Russian literature to move so naturally in a world of the spirit, where there are no barriers between the ages and the nations, but all mankind is one." And it is this aspiring and striving genius of Russia, as expressed in her modern literature, which leads English writers like John Galsworthy and Thomas Hardy and Mrs. Ward to utter the hope that, "when the end comes and we can breathe again," the best spirits of Russia will be found working together with those of England "in a changed Europe," in order to "protect the weak, to liberate the oppressed, and to bring eventual healing to the wounds inflicted on mankind both by ourselves and our enemies."

Such utterances as these run beyond their immediate end. They help us to see more clearly of what nature is the solidarity that may be expected to become established and strengthened between men and women of different nations and races. There has been recently a good deal of talk about "world-citizenship." It is suggested as the only sure means of ending the war and preventing the recurrence of any other like it. Formal plans have been put forward, by vari-

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ous men on whom the burden of war lies dire, to bring about a citizenship which shall be good for all countries. The idea was fathered on New Year's by Mr. Darwin Kingsley, and Professor Fagnani has been writing in much the same vein. The nations are to come into a great Federation. All that it is possible to have in common, they will have in common—postage, currency, customs laws, and so on, are to be the same everywhere. In addition, of course, there is to be an international court before which all disturbers of the peace of the world are to be haled by an international police. The various schemes differ in details, but are the same in substance. They have long been cherished and advocated, but have been made to wear an appearance of special urgency by the existing European war.

With their aim and with the humane hopes underlying them, it is impossible not to sympathize. But it is equally impossible not to see that such a precisely organized world-citizenship must be for generations unattainable. The spirit of it, however, is coming visibly nearer, and is already embodied in many forms. These do not constitute a technical world-citizenship, but they do cause to spring up in all lands larger numbers of men and women ready to make their own the famous motto: "Our country is the world. Our countrymen are mankind." This is the idea shadowed forth in the greeting of the English writers to kindred souls in Russia. Literature is a bond of unity. Art and science know no national boundaries. Truer than all else, in this day and generation it is the humane instinct in the hearts of men which makes them all brothers. Already we have a world-citizenship of growing strength and of increasing self-consciousness. It has manifested itself, and will again with renewed power when this cruel war is over, in a love of all that is beautiful in art and life, and in concerted efforts to bind up earth's broken-hearted and to bring in everywhere fuller opportunity and larger liberty.

A REVIEW'S CENTENARY.

The one hundredth year of the *North American Review*, commemorated this month, does not mark the centenary of American periodical literature. Before 1815 the republic had seen Dennie's *Portfolio*, Charles Brockden Brown's *Literary Magazine*, and Irving's and Paulding's *Analectic Magazine*. Yet the foundation of the *Review* marked a blooming of scholarly thought and intellectual curiosity in this country. The spirit of the times is described by Emerson in those "Historical Notes of Life and Letters in New England" which deal so largely with the third editor of the *Review*—Everett. "It seemed a war between intellect and affection; a crack in Nature, which split every church into Papal and Protestant; Calvinism into old and new schools; Quakerism into old and new; brought new divisions into politics; and the new conscience respecting temperance and slavery. The key to the period appeared to be that the mind had become aware of itself. Men grew reflective and intellectual. There was a new consciousness." Evident, also, was "a certain sharpness of criticism, an eagerness for reform, which showed itself in every quarter." Men were reading Lavater, Gall and Spurzheim, Goethe and Hegel. But if this intellectual world-appraisal had much of New England in it, it was as well the reflex of a great international movement. The very lack of indigenous quality was one thing which made the *North American Review* typical of Harvard and Boston in 1815. Founded by a Cambridge club of scholars and gentlemen, out of which grew also the Boston Athenæum, it was deliberately modelled after the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly*, and its solidity and impressiveness depended from the start on an awakened American consciousness that there were such things as world-standards.

This steadfast looking abroad for models gives point to a famous incident in the *Review's* early history. In 1817, according to Parke Godwin, Dr. Bryant submitted to Richard Henry Dana, E. T. Channing, and Willard Phillips manuscripts by his twenty-three-year-old son, among them "Thanatopsis." "Ah, Phillips," remarked Dana with a quiet smile at the close of the reading, "you have been imposed upon; no one this side the Atlantic is capable of writing such verses." Scholarliness and keeping in line with tradition were nurtured by the successive editors. "Germany," Emerson wrote, "had created criticism in vain for us until 1820, when Edward Everett returned from his five years in Europe and brought to Cambridge his rich results, which no one was so fitted by actual grace and the splendor of his rhetoric to introduce and recommend. He made us for the first time acquainted with Wolff, . . . with the criticism of Heyne." It was in the *Review* that there appeared the two papers by Dr. Channing on Milton and Napoleon, "the first specimens in this country of that large criticism which in England had given power and fame to the *Edinburgh*. They were widely read, and immediately fruitful in provoking emulation which lifted the style of journalism." The chief contributors, Bryant, Ticknor, Webster, Adams, and Bancroft, were deeply imbued with English culture. When Jared Sparks became editor in 1824, he exemplified reserved and cautious scholarship. The man who, before he resigned, had begun the twelve-volume "Diplomatic History of the American Revolution," and was contemplating his collection of Washington's and Franklin's writings, would not allow despite to exact learning or received opinions.

With editors and contributors what they were, the *Review* became an exponent of the scholarly New England of Channing and Bancroft, and won an international repute; but there were two main difficulties. The changing current of the times left it somewhat stranded, and deprived it of its representative quality. The New England of the 'forties was much better expressed by the *Dial;* that of the 'sixties by the *Atlantic.* Scholarship gave way first to philosophy, and then, with the birth of a group of able writers, to pure literature; and the *Review* could not follow. Besides, it tended to become a dry-as-dust publication. For ten years preceding 1863 it was edited temperately and carefully by Andrew P. Peabody, but yearly lost power. When Lowell and Norton were invited to take charge of it, the former characterized it in a letter. The *Review* was "a rather Sisyphean job. . . . It wanted three chief elements to be successful. It wasn't thoroly, that is, thickly and thinly, loyal; it wasn't lively, and it had no particular opinions on any particular subject. It was an eminently safe periodical, and accordingly in danger of running aground. . . . Perhaps the day of these quarterlies is gone by, and those megatheria of letters may be in the mere course of nature withdrawing to their last swamps to die in peace." But what vigor Lowell put into it in the later Civil War and early Reconstruction days we have only to turn to his Political Essays to see.

The greatest epoch in the diversified history of the *Review* was, as a writer in the current issue remarks, that closed by the resignation of Lowell and of Norton as editors. For one reason, the rise of other periodicals of the review character deprived it of its isolated distinction. For another, its change to the form of a monthly led it into fields more nearly journalistic, less markedly academic, and more concerned with actual current events. "In the new *Review*," Howells remarks, "literature is given a back seat." In its career of one hundred years, however, it has consistently been related

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with the best names in contemporary literature, and it occupies a place of its own in the record of our literature. Its friends will wish it uninterrupted prosperity.

AMERICA AND EDUCATION IN THE ORIENT.

Publication in English for general American circulation of the last report of the Japanese Minister of Education calls attention to a system which United States Commissioner Claxton terms "one of the most notable achievements of the nineteenth century." It also reminds us of the rôle that America has played in establishing this. In the report is a view of one part of the influence of American ideas throughout the school world of the Orient—justly called "an educational melting-pot." The ordinary American is far from appreciating this. He knows what we owe abroad. The Scandinavian folk-high-schools; German continuation and technical schools; the French school organization; the Montessori method; British teachers' organizations; even Swiss commercial and agricultural high schools, have all in recent years given us models or suggestions. He does not often know that in Japan, China, in part even in India and Egypt, the American mind and American school methods are holding their own against what he might consider the more highly developed systems of foreign education. What they have given to the Orient will easily bear comparison with what other nations have given it.

A distinction is obviously to be drawn between the influence of American personnel and that of intangible American educational ideals. Almost everywhere this nation has had an advantage in the number of its representatives and their wealth. It is well known that when modern education was instituted in Japan in 1871, it was with the aid of American advisers that a national and compulsory system was inaugurated. Between 1868 and 1900, 5,000 experts or assistants in various fields went to Japan, and of these 1,200 were American teachers. Yet the educational organization introduced was more nearly French than anything else. In Egypt a large school is maintained by Americans at Assiut, and has been open so long that a decade ago it was receiving the sons of early graduates. In 1905 there were 170 schools under American control, and the number is now 188; while the native schoolmasters are in great part American trained. Our record in India, Persia, and Turkey is as good. In China the work of our mission schools and universities is attested by Vice-President King, of Peking University, to have been "the most efficient of all educational work done in the Empire." Since Sir Robert Hart was made head of the Tung Wen College in Peking in 1862, and the Chinese Government, after the Tientsin massacre of 1870, began sending yearly instalments of thirty students to this country, down to Yuan Shi-Kai's commission to Dr. Hayes to regulate the colleges and preparatory schools of Shantung Province, most Chinese educational advance has been connected with names prominent in American church or educational records.

As to distinctively American school organization, teaching, and courses of study, these often constitute the less important kind of influence. Mere educational forms, according to Lafcadio Hearn, give a superficial impression of the matter of Oriental education. Personal contact counts for much more. But in the Japanese report it is easy to trace the currents of American influence, especially in higher education. The four Imperial universities are each organized into colleges, as of Law, Engineering, Agriculture, Literature, on our familiar plan. Administration and activities, from the three weeks' "practical institutes" and other facilities to the general public, to their methods of handling elective curricula, resemble those of our State universities.

The score of advanced technical schools are supported by appropriations of $3,000,000 yearly. It is of the lower schools of 7,500,000 pupils, correlated as in Europe, that the complaint of the Prussianization of children is most frequent. As for China, as most of its recent steps in higher education have been taken with one eye on Japan and the other partly on Europe and partly on America, our influence has had direct and indirect opportunity to make itself felt.

The great tendency, East as West, is today towards vocational and technical training, and it is along these lines that American influence will have the greatest opportunity to perpetuate itself. In the five Indian universities and 218 technical schools are 35,000 young men; in the Egyptian Government schools swayed by Kitchener's policy of forbidding the students "to get their hands soft" are 30,000 more. A similar work is rapidly to be got under way in China, and its development must rest in large part with Americans and the 700 Chinese students now in America; while our efforts will continue to make themselves felt in Japan and the Philippines.

Chronicle of the War

The defeat of the Turkish armies in Transcaucasia, which we briefly chronicled last week, appears to have been even more complete than was gathered from early reports of it. Turkish forces had penetrated to Sarykamysch, in an attempt to threaten the military base at Kars, and to Ardahan, some eighty or ninety miles apart, and at these two places separate battles seem to have taken place simultaneously, in each of which the Ottoman troops suffered severe defeats. At Ardahan, according to the Russian official announcement, the First Turkish Army Corps was routed and dispersed. At Sarykamysch the Ninth Army Corps, consisting of 30,000 men, was completely annihilated, and the Tenth Army Corps appears to have been badly cut up in the battle and the subsequent pursuit. Large numbers of prisoners, including many officers, seem to have been taken, as well as a quantity of artillery and supplies.

As we write, it is reported that the Eleventh Army Corps, which had been held in reserve at Erzerum, and apparently failed to move in time to be of any effective assistance, has now been moved up to the support of the remnants of the retreating Tenth Army Corps, and the Russian and Turkish forces have again come into touch on the frontier, at Karaurgan. It is apparent that the Turkish base at Erzerum is seriously threatened and that the Turks must make desperate efforts to move up reinforcements for the defence of this place, which is the key to the whole region bordering on the Russian frontier. Whether the Russians will be in a position to press home their advantage before Turkish reinforcements arrive must be regarded as doubtful. We know that only the Caucasian troops have been engaged in this region, no forces having been diverted from the long front in Poland and Galicia, and the battles at Ardahan and Sarykamysch appear to have been won by inferior numbers but superior strategy. It is questionable, therefore, whether the Russians will have at their disposal forces sufficient to press on into Turkish territory and make a serious attack on Erzerum.

On the East Prussian front, in Poland, and in West Galicia, there has been a lull in the fighting during the past few days, and the situation remains virtually what it was when we wrote last week. We may notice, however, that the official account from Berlin of the capture of Borjimow, at the juncture of the Rawka and Bzura Rivers, to which we referred with some doubt last week, proves to have been "greatly exaggerated." Fighting for this position has taken place, but the German attacks appear to have been repulsed. The extent to which the character of the fighting in Poland has now approximated to that of the western campaign is well illustrated by the fact that on this front also the names of individual houses or hamlets are taking the place of those of towns in the official dispatches. Thus we have heard frequently of late of the "Moghely Farm," reminiscent of the "house of the Ferryman" which figured so prominently in the French dispatches a few weeks ago.

In France and Flanders, also, the deadlock has continued, only unimportant gains, in which the Allies have on the whole had the

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advantage, being recorded on either side. The most serious fighting has been in the neighborhood of Soissons, where the French have made slight progress, and in Alsace, where the progress that we recorded last week appears to have been checked. The French advanced last week a little in the direction of Altkirch and seem to have penetrated to within two and one-half miles of that town, but the position of Burnhaupt-le-Haut, which they had gained, was lost to them on January 9.

The proportion of enemy's territory occupied by either side is, of course, of little significance so far as the final outcome of the war is concerned, but it is interesting to note that recent Russian gains in Galicia, Hungary, and Bukowina have almost equalized the territorial account as between the Allies and the Teutonic Alliance. For the benefit of some readers who have made inquiries on this point we may give figures summarizing the areas of enemy territory occupied by either side, adding, however, the obvious warning that the figures can only be taken as approximate.

In the west, Germany occupies the whole of Belgium, except an area of some 500 square miles in West Flanders, making a total of some 10,900 miles. In France, the following provinces are in whole or partial occupation of German forces: Nord (the whole = 2,228 square miles); Pas de Calais (one-sixth, = 400 square miles); Aisne (two-thirds, = 1,900 square miles); Ardennes (the whole, = 2,027 square miles); Marne (one-eighth, = 400 square miles); Meuse (three-sevenths, = 1,000 square miles); Meurthe et Moselle (one-fifth, = 400 square miles); Vosges (a small area around St. Dié, = 50 square miles). Total, 8,405 square miles. In the east, Poland north of the Vistula is practically clear of German troops. From the juncture of the Bzura and Vistula Rivers southwards the line runs approximately along the Bzura and Rawka Rivers to Rawa, thence following the Pilica, Nida, and Dunajec Rivers into Galicia. German occupation of Polish provinces, then, is as follows: Kalisz (the whole, = 4,377 square miles); Piotrkow (the whole, = 4,730 square miles); Warsaw (one-eighth, = 800 square miles); Kielce (one-fourth, = 900 square miles). Total, 10,807 square miles. In Belgium, France, and Poland, therefore, the Teutonic Allies occupy some 30,000 square miles of territory.

Against Germany's occupation of Belgium and northern France in the west is to be put, on the side of the Allies, only some 100 square miles of German territory in Alsace. Russian occupation of enemy territory, however, adjusts the balance. On the East Prussian frontier Russian forces are established along a narrow strip of territory, the area of which may be estimated conservatively as 600 square miles. The total area of Galicia is 30,321 square miles, of which Russia occupies virtually all except the corner west of the Dunajec River. To this must be added the 4,033 square miles of Bukowina, nearly all of which is in Russian occupation, and certain fractions of Hungary and Transylvania, the extent of which we have no means of estimating, but which would not appreciably affect the total. We may, therefore, put the area of enemy's country occupied by the Allies at some figure between 30,000 and 35,000 square miles, which makes the territorial balance slightly in their favor.

Foreign Correspondence

THE RAID ON SCARBOROUGH—BOOM IN ARMY PROMOTION—UNCHANGEABLE PRUSSIA — PEGGOTTY'S HOUSE AT YARMOUTH.

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

WESTMINSTER, December 26.

The German attack upon the northeast coast of England obviously had two objects in view. The first was to terrorize the British nation; the other, a consequential one, to break up the scheme of its naval policy and, by compelling Admiral Jellicoe to dispatch a number of ships for the defence of the coast, to weaken fatally his command of the North Sea. Neither of these carefully thought out schemes has succeeded. So far from the nation being terrorized by this attack on defenceless towns, with the concomitant circumstance of the slaughter of civilians, including women and children, the result has been a distinct incentive to recruiting. As for the navy, the First Lord of the Admiralty promptly responded to the news of the attack by declaration that the naval policy under which the grand fleet remains in the North Sea, waiting for the Germans to come out and fight, will not be departed from in the slightest degree. In brief, the situation remains as it was.

The carnage attendant upon the long-protracted fight in Flanders has naturally resulted in a steady flow of promotions in the army. Since the peace that followed the close of the Boer War promotion has been practically stagnant. A friend, just home from the trenches, whither he went with the rank of lieutenant, and after a couple of months' fighting bloomed in full captaincy, tells me a senior colleague, who last week attained his majority, has for twelve years served as captain, a grade won in the Boer War. As the Roll of Honor, displayed morning after morning in the newspapers, testifies with melancholy iteration, every day sees the cutting off of a group of officers for the most part in the very prime of young manhood, on the threshold of what they had hoped to make a glorious career. With the regular army recruited by the million, the difficulty of finding officers, first to train, then to lead, the men, would in ordinary circumstances tax to its utmost the capacity of the War Office. As it is, the constant leakage of blood in the fighting-line adds immeasurably to what of itself was an almost insuperable task.

It is coming to pass that Lord Kitchener's difficulty is, not to obtain sufficient recruits for additional armies, but to find the necessary complement of officers. The dilemma has led to adoption of a principle, admirable in itself, and not likely to fall into desuetude when the return of peace removes abnormal pressure. A regular system of promoting from the ranks to the position of lieutenant capable and deserving men has been inaugurated. Apart from its immediate usefulness, this custom has wholesome effect upon the rank and file. It is, of course, not new. Napoleon not only gave currency to the cheering axiom, "Every private soldier carries a marshal's bâton in his knapsack," he habitually acted upon it. Some of his most successful marshals had risen from the ranks. My friend the newly made captain tells me that in the delicate matter of difference in social scale no difficulty arises under the new order of things.

A hundred years ago there was published in London a newspaper called *Champion*, an excellent title, which, strange to say, has never been appropriated by the multitude of journals that have succeeded it. Under date of November 27, 1814, it records the union of Saxony with Prussia. *Champion* laments the event in terms remarkable as showing how little dominant features in the character of Prussia have altered in the course of a century. "What Saxony has lost," writes the indignant English paper, "is the pride of independence, the advantage of a government whose sole attention was directed to its welfare, and which, from the small extent of its territory, was always interested to preserve peace. It has fallen into the hands of Prussia, the most rapacious state on the Continent, which has always taken advantage of the weakness of its neighbors to further in some pitiful way its own interest. It now possesses Silesia, which it stole from Austria. It was the most active power in the aggressions against Poland. It seized Dantzic, in violation of treaty, without provocation or a shadow of right, and it did not disdain to receive Hanover from that great master in political arrangements, the Emperor Napoleon."

"I looked in all directions, as far as I could stare, over the wilderness and away at the sea and away at the river, but no house could I make out. There was a black barge or some other kind of superannuated boat not far off, high and dry on the ground, with an iron funnel sticking out of it for a chimney, and smoking very cosily. But nothing else in the way of habitation was visible to me.

"'That's not it,' said I; 'that ship-looking thing?'

"'That's our house, Massa Davy,' returned Ham."

Thus is Peggotty's house introduced and described in "David Copperfield." It will be faithfully reproduced on the stage of His Majesty's Theatre when to-morrow night Sir Beerbohm Tree presents the play. Being at Yarmouth yesterday, I went in search of the famous homestead. Discovery created as much amazement as the earlier one had wrought in the more ingenuous mind of young Copperfield. My carrier, an ancient mariner, who had begun life as the driver of a fly, conducted me to a street well within the limits of the broad boulevard that faces the beach. "There it is," he said, pointing the butt end of his whip towards a snug villa on the brow of which flared the legend "Peggotty's House."

The explanation of the mystery is that this painfully modern residence has been built on what is certified to be the site of the old boat stranded on the beach which, more than fifty years ago, Dickens came upon during a visit to Yarmouth. During the last half-century the sea has appreciably receded on this part of the coast, and Yarmouth has added many acres to its boundaries. Around the point to the north, and by the stretch of coast upon which the North Sea beats, an exactly reverse process is taking place. The land is being steadily encroached upon by the sea. At low water a post is seen marking the site of the engulfing of a Norman church.

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Book Notes and Byways

MINOR TALES OF BROCKDEN BROWN, 1798-1800.

During his energetic years 1798-1800 Charles Brockden Brown published, besides the four romances upon which his name now rests and the flood of journalism by which he then served the republic, a number of essays at fiction so eloquent of the workshop as to arouse curious bibliographers. He had been for at least three years a copious dabbler in romance and had begun many tales of which he soon tired. But the establishment at Philadelphia, in February, 1794, of the *Weekly Magazine of Original Essays, Fugitive Pieces and Interesting Intelligence,* for which Brown was one of the patrons, gave him a public to which he confided his experiments.

The first thirteen numbers of the magazine, February 3-April 28 (Vol. I, pp. 1-4, 33-7, 65-7, 99-103, 133-6, 167-70, 193-5, 225-6, 257-61, 289-91, 320-3, 352-5), contain "The Man at Home," in which an elderly debtor, hiding from the inquisitive world, talks of his affairs until the story breaks off in the very face of his arrest. In style and manner the tale is thoroughly typical of the later Brown, stilted, speculative, mysterious. "Give me a tale of lofty crimes, rather than of honest folly," his hero exclaims (Vol. I, p. 257). Interesting, too, is the fact that the important episode of M. De Moivre and his daughter (No. IV, February 24, pp. 101-3, and No. V, March 3, pp. 133-6) later became Chapter VII of "Ormond" by the substitution of the name Monrose for De Moivre, a few verbal changes, and the addition of an opening paragraph. The career of Martinette Monrose in "Ormond" seems to have been suggested by that of Mlle. De Moivre.

The *Weekly Magazine* for March 17 has a hitherto unnoted letter to the editor which bears Brown's signature on its face, though it is modestly signed "SPERATUS" (Vol. I, p. 202). It begins:

> You will be good enough to inform your readers that, in a short time their patronage will be solicited to a work in which it is endeavoured to amuse the imagination and improve the heart. A tale that may rival the performances of this kind which have lately issued from the English press, will be unexampled in America. Whether the work alluded to deserve this praise the writer is, of all men, least qualified to judge. . . . It is indeed a poor plea, by which to shield ourselves from the indignation of criticism, that our work, like ourselves, is juvenile, and that, aided and fostered by encouragement and lenity, the seed that is at present so inconsiderable may in time expand into the loveliness of the rose, and the deliciousness of the anana; yet this plea, however insufficient to procure us friends, may be true.

The hopeful youth will at least make later work better.

He then proceeds to a discussion of his aims in fiction:

> To the story-telling moralist the United States is a new and untrodden field. He who shall examine objects with his own eyes, who shall employ the European models merely for the improvement of his taste, and adapt his fiction to all that is genuine and peculiar in the scene before him, will be entitled at least to the praise of originality. . . . He, therefore, who paints, not from books, but from nature, who introduces those lines and hues in which we differ, rather than those in which we resemble our kindred nations beyond the ocean; may lay some claim to the patronage of his countrymen. . . . The value of such works lies without doubt in their moral tendency. The popular tales have their merit, but there is one thing in which they are deficient. They are generally adapted to one class of readers only. . . . The world is governed, not by the simpleton, but by the men of soaring passions and intellectual energy. By the display of such only can we hope to enchain the attention and ravish the souls of those who study and reflect. . . . To gain their homage it is not needful to forego the approbation of those whose circumstances have hindered them from making the same progress. A contexture of facts capable of suspending the faculties of every soul in curiosity, may be joined with depth of views into human nature and all the subtleties of reasoning. . . . The writer is a native and resident of this city. Some part of his tale is a picture of the truth. Facts have supplied the foundation of the whole. Its title is "SKY-WALK, OR, THE MAN UNKNOWN TO HIMSELF.—*An American Tale.*"

A sample of this "New Work of Invention and Reflection," printed in the issue for March 24 (pp. 228-31), is barely long enough to reveal the touch of "Caleb Williams"; the narrator is a youth in the unsleeping hands of a patroness. On April 7 it was explained that "Sky-Walk" was a "popular corruption of 'Ski Wakkee,' or *Big Spring,* the name given by the Lenni Lennassee [*sic*], or Delaware Indians, to the district where the principal scenes of this novel are transacted" (p. 318). The cover of the magazine bore for some months an advertisement, dated March 23, in which the novel was offered to the subscribing world. "It was never published," says Dunlap in his "Life of Charles Brockden Brown" (Vol. I, p. 259), "owing to the death of the printer, who had undertaken to publish it at his own risk." This hardy spirit dead—his name was James Watters—his executors proved less audacious. But Brown was not wholly defeated: "After Charles had made new York his place of residence, he incorporated parts of 'Sky-Walk' into other works of imagination, as his memory retained them. In 'Edgar Huntley' [*sic*], for example, the wild district of Norwalk had its prototype in Sky-Walk."

Before "Edgar Huntly" came out in full, however (it was in press in July, 1799), there had already appeared in the first number of the *Monthly Magazine and American Review,* April, 1799 (Vol. I, pp. 21-44), a foretaste called "Edgar Huntly: a Fragment." The editor, Brown himself, gave it as "extracted from the memoirs of a young man who resided some years since on the upper branches of the Delaware." He declared the local descriptions exact and ascribed "Old Deb" to nature. Apparently he took this adventurous episode, which includes the last two paragraphs of Chapter XV, Chapters XVI-XIX, and the first two paragraphs of Chapter XX, as the book now stands, and added to it the mysteries of sleep walking, also employed in "Sky-Walk," just as he had made "Wieland" by combining a recent murder case with the wonders of ventriloquism.

If plagiarism is the tie that binds Brown's works together, "Arthur Mervyn" should be by the same hand as "A Series of Original Letters," not before ascribed to Brown, which appeared in the *Weekly Magazine,* April 21-June 2, 1798 (Vol. I, pp. 364-5, 389-93; Vol. II, pp. 9-12, 46-7, 69-71, 103-5, 135-7). These letters are asserted to be genuine and published without the "concurrence of the writers," a certain young Henry D——, studying law at Philadelphia, and his sister Mary, living in Burlington. They are the orphans of a most estimable man, cultured, conscious of marked superiority to their poor surroundings and yet afraid of pride, both scholars, both speculative, both interested in the world as an exciting place in which to find things already experienced in books. The inner evidence of style, subjects of discussion, and traits of character point strongly to Brown as author. Perhaps as strong is the evidence of two slighter matters. The daughter of the plain woman with whom Mary D—— lodges is called Eliza, or Betsy, Hadwin (Vol I, p. 391); in Letter X (Vol. II, p. 135-7) Henry writes that a certain mysterious Lucy Beddoes, of whom his landlady gossips and who has seduced the son of the landlady's friend, Mrs. Winters, visits a Mrs. Berriton, the widow of an English officer, who lives sumptuously in Philadelphia on the wages of her three daughters' shame. The "Original Letters" fail after the tenth, so no one can know what happens, but just two weeks later their place in the *Weekly Magazine* began to be supplied by "Arthur Mervyn." Now in "Arthur Mervyn" an Eliza Hadwin, daughter of Mervyn's Quaker host, appears in Chapter XIII and just misses playing an important part in the story. In the second part of the novel, not published till 1800, the first chapter introduces "a woman, by name Villars, who passed for the widow of an English officer. . . . She had three daughters . . . elegant in person, manners, and dress. . . . It began to be suspected that their subsistence was derived not from pension or patrimony, but from the wages of pollution." Into their house Mervyn forces his strange and moral way in Chapters XXXIV-XXXV. Brown may, indeed, have only chanced upon these details; he may have borrowed the name and the situation from another's story; but it is simplest to believe that he wrote "A Series of Original Letters."

When he undertook to edit the *Monthly Magazine* at New York, he still found time, and space, for fiction. "Edgar Huntly: a Fragment" appeared, it has been said, in the first number; the May issue contained "Thessalonica: a Roman Story" (Vol. I, pp. 99-117), unsigned but reprinted by Dunlap in the "Life," Vol. II; in June began "Memoirs of Stephen Calvert," which ran, with one long silence (regarding which see Vol. II, pp. 172-3), till June, 1800 (Vol. I, pp. 191-215, 267-82, 350-9, 424-34; Vol. II, pp. 17-30, 256-84, 330-40, 413-23; also in Dunlap, Vol. II, and in "Carwin, the Biloquist, and other American Tales and Pieces," London, 1822, Vols. I-III). "Friendship: an Original Letter," July, 1800 (Vol. III, pp. 37-9) and "Original Letters," August, 1800 (Vol. III, pp. 101-11) have not been pointed out as portions of the romance which Brown says he completed on the last day of December, 1797 (Dunlap, "Life," Vol. I, p. 107). "Friendship" appears in Dunlap, Vol. I, pp. 120-4. Of the "Original Letters" I is an answer from Jessica to Sophia's first letter as given in Dunlap, Vol. I, pp. 108-9; II answers the letter on pp. 111-14 in Dunlap; III-V are not in Dunlap nor are their relations to his fragments very clear. All of this romance which we have was printed as "Jessica" in "Carwin, the Biloquist," Vol. III, but one cannot be sure that this was all Brown wrote. It may be remarked that the mysterious stranger of this tale bears the name Colden later worn by the hero in "Jane Talbot."

Although the *Monthly Magazine* had its share of sketches on the vague borderland between fiction and edification, it contains, besides those already listed, only two manifest

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tales. One, "The Trials of Arden," July, 1800 (Vol. III, pp. 19-36), purports to be the actual experiences of a certain Arden, who, after strange adventures in Europe, had figured, the victim of false charges, in a trial for murder and had narrowly escaped hanging. The matter might easily have been Brown's, but the manner is not sufficiently marked to be called his, or any man's, without additional testimony. This lack of mannerism is tolerable evidence against Brown's authorship. The other story, "A Lesson on Concealment; or, Memoirs of Mary Selwyn," March, 1800 (Vol. II, pp. 174-207), has nearly every mark of Brown's hand. It consists of a series of letters in which one Henry Kirvan plays the Caleb Williams to a Mr. Haywood. Haywood, engaged to be married to a Miss Addington, is accused of having seduced a virtuous matron, the sister of a Mr. Selwyn. Brother and seducer fight a duel, and Selwyn dies. Kirvan goes to live with a Dr. Molesworth, who is contending with the plague in New York. There the youth falls ill, is nursed by Mrs. Molesworth, sees in her a likeness to Selwyn, discovers she is the seduced sister, vows silence, hears her story, and tells her of Selwyn's death. At this point the two are surprised by Molesworth, who cannot understand his wife's profound distress. She refuses to tell him her secret, and soon dies of the fever. Most of the story is made up of the letter in which Kirvan acquaints Molesworth with the tragic facts. The situation of the youth who relies on patrons and tells their stories is typically a Brown situation; Haywood's seduction of Mrs. Colmer, later Mrs. Molesworth, almost exactly parallels an episode in the career of Welbeck, "Arthur Mervyn," Chapters IX-XI. Both Welbeck and Haywood are unhappily married; each is offered hospitality by a new friend; each finds the friend's sister living with him, in the absence of her husband; each admires in the woman her powerful intelligence and lofty character; each succeeds in deceiving her. In each case the victim learns that her paramour has been previously married, and flees to hide her guilt. Each wronged husband commits suicide; each brother follows the seducer and is killed by him in a duel. The method of narrative is like Brown's, and the style seems easily his. A fact which may be significant is that "A Lesson of Concealment" appeared during the period which saw the "Memoirs of Stephen Calvert" temporarily suspended.

Neither the *Monthly Magazine* nor its successor, the *American Review and Literary Journal,* seems to contain other tales by Brown, and the *Literary Magazine and American Register,* which he started at Philadelphia in 1803, belongs to another period of his life. One other early piece, however, has generally escaped notice. At the end of Vol. III of the 1799 edition of "Edgar Huntly" Brown printed his "Death of Cicero, a Fragment. Tiro to Atticus" (separately paged, 1-48), in which Cicero's freedman tells of the last days of the master. He does it in a mild paraphrase of Plutarch's account and closes with lamentation in a more or less Ciceronian key.

The minor tales here cited do not, even with "Wieland," "Arthur Mervyn," "Ormond," and "Edgar Huntly," make up the whole of the fiction Brown wrote during 1798-1800, but they seem to be all he published, and they throw some light on his mental equipment and artistic methods.

CARL VAN DOREN.

Columbia University.

Correspondence

THE WAR AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On opening at the Sorbonne a few days ago my annual course of lectures on the history of the French Revolution, I thought it well to point out the necessity that the intellectual activity of France should not lie dormant during the war; for the defence of the country finds its source of strength in the spiritual as well as in the purely physical life of the nation. University instruction, by its formation of the youth of the land, has an eye to the future interests of the commonwealth; it connects the present with the past by means of historical studies, and thus fortifies the spirit of France while it contributes to the progress of knowledge and to the general amelioration of humanity. We professors, therefore, are accomplishing an eminently French work by continuing to teach under the present terrible circumstances, with the enemy only some fifty or sixty miles from our gates, and we are also accomplishing an eminently civic work, since this war is being carried on not only for the independence of France, but for the benefit of civilization and for the liberty of Europe and the world.

Though the thoughts of an enlightened Frenchman are inseparable from those of the nation, they should not be the slave of circumstances and emotion. An historian, who is a patriot along with his fellow citizens, should, nevertheless, judge in an independent spirit the present as well as the past. He should ever be on his guard against the German vice of falsifying history in the interest, or the pretended interest, of his own country. To the ingenious and often seemingly triumphant pedagogic and historical system by means of which the German universities have implanted in their land a patriotism of prey and rapine, and a tyrannical militarism, we in France would oppose a culture of truth alone—the whole truth, and not a half-truth. Whether we have to do with Germany or France, our historical teaching does not strive to hide, tendentiously, any parcel of the truth. The more the Germans prevaricate, the more we will tell the entire truth, and thus we shall hope to have truth ever fighting on our side; and, furthermore, though at the same time we are filled with indignation, legitimate indignation, at so many falsehoods and atrocities, an eclipse of the honest critical spirit shall not darken this Sorbonne of ours.

You have doubtless read the manifesto of the German intellectuals, who, under pressure from the Kaiser, adopt as their own the official falsehoods which are as conscious as they are enormous, and deny the accuracy of the most certain facts, without offering the shadow of a proof in support of this position. In France there have been divers and eloquent replies to this manifesto; and I may safely add that, if when, later, our soldiers penetrate into Germany, they are accused in their turn of being guilty of atrocities, there will not be found a single French savant who would not prefer that his hand be withered rather than sign, without examination, without criticism, without discussion, a denial of these accusations. But a still more decisive reply may be found in the fact that the French universities offer at this moment the example of an imperturbable continuation and progression in the cause of sane history by adhering to the critical method and displaying a fidelity even more zealous than in the past to that historical and scientific spirit which the German intellectuals have just betrayed and disavowed so shamefully.

In the case of many of the subjects taught at the Sorbonne, and even in some of those of an historic nature, the professor has to make an heroic effort to drive from his mind, for the moment, the cares and the news concerning his country's defence. Thus, for example, we must not confuse our present time with the Greek and Roman past. This abstraction in the case of events which have been completely accomplished is one of the essential conditions of the true historical science. But this does not hold good of the history of the French Revolution, for the reason that the upheaval of 1789 is not an event which is completed; much still remains to be done in the social and economic domains in order to realize all the aims of the French Revolution. But I do not intend to determine here exactly in what this remainder consists. I wish simply to point out the fact that, if our revolution is still unfinished as regards France, it is even more so as regards Europe in general, and in its international bearings. I desire to show that international law, the law of nations, which was a child of 1789, is far from having won the victory, and has received a rude rebuff in the present war at the hands of Prussianized Germany. What has been ruthlessly called in question, as witness the martyrdom of Belgium, is the sacred right of a nation to its independence. What is left unsettled, as is seen in the servitude of Alsace-Lorraine, Poland, Bohemia, etc., is the right of a people to decide freely as regards its lot. This right is based on the principles and acts of the French Revolution, and the defence of this right is the real object of the struggle now going on with Germany. This war, both as it concerns France and humanity in general, is the continuation of the fight begun by the French Revolution, a fight against the offensive return of the past, against the assumption that force makes right, an idea which Prussian militarism has instilled into the German soul, where once dwelt the belief that right is based on reason, a belief proclaimed by Kant and the other German thinkers, under the influence of French thought.

Between the present war and the French Revolution there is not only connection, resemblance, and the relation of cause to effect, but it is the same event which is now being developed, and which seems to be about to attain, in a final effort, its completion. But to-day the event has taken on other forms, which partially conceal its identity, so that there appears to be in this continuity, at one and the same time, a certain resemblance and a certain dissimilarity between 1789 and 1914.

Just as in a tragedy on the stage the first act explains the catastrophe and reciprocally, so the history of the French Revolution throws light on the present war; not only on its causes, but also on its outcome; while this war makes plainer many things of the French Revolution. In my opening lecture I drew attention especially to this second point. I showed how the patriotism of our

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soldiers of to-day enables us to understand better, and even to feel the patriotism of the France of 1792 and 1793, to perceive the power that moral forces exercise in battles, and to grasp the reason why there was so much emphasis in the style and the gesture of the men of the Revolution. In the same way will our style and gesture of to-day appear emphatic in 2014 to the highly civilized Frenchmen of the twenty-first century, who will then be enjoying the peace which our efforts will have procured for them.

Our generation, heroized, if I may coin the word, by the events of the present conflict, now fully realizes how, under similar conditions, was heroized the generation of 1793, heroized to such a degree that, though that generation was, like our own, of average quality, it appears to us like a generation of giants. This phenomenon is especially true in what concerns the suspicions and the exasperation characterizing our present exaggerated patriotism, and explains to us as never before the suspicions and the exasperation of the patriotism of 1792 and 1793. If we had to combat, as they did, not only the Prussians and Austrians, but also the Royalist *émigrés*, in arms against their own country, while at the same time we had to cope at home with the hidden accomplices of these *émigrés*, we also would not hesitate to institute against these French traitors a new Terror; so it happens that this war of 1914 enables us to perceive the psychological causes of the Terror of 1793, of the Revolutionary Government, of the Revolutionary Tribunal, and of the Law of Suspects.

In subsequent lectures I shall show how the precipitancy of public events in 1789, and the final success of our armed defence, which lost us the Revolution, explain to us the sudden reunion of all France last August, and convince us of our final success in the present contest. Then I shall lay special stress on the formation, character, and development of French patriotism at the epoch of the Revolution; I shall describe that spontaneous unification of the French people in a single nation, and I shall indicate how the spirit of unity which animates our land to-day springs from the federative enthusiasm of 1789 and 1790. I shall declare that these federative acts were a solemn national pact, a veritable contract of union and fraternity, whence it follows that no one of the provinces of France which participated in this memorable measure can tolerate being torn against its will from the French national group. Hence it is that Alsace and Lorraine must be returned to the France of the Federation, and hence it is, also, that the present war and the Revolution are again closely allied.

Such is the historical basis of the right which we claim concerning the lost provinces, and this historical right will be the principle which will serve the Allies in their rearrangement of the map of Europe at the close of the present contest, when will be freed the enslaved peoples, or at least those among them who have taken an initiative that will render possible their liberation. In this way the Allies will make a practical move in the direction of a general pacification, and not indulge in a mere quixotic act which would in the end prove as chimerical as imprudent.

Such are the views concerning the past, such are the views concerning the future, which, in this year of stress, will form the subject of the lectures at the Paris University on the history of the French Revolution.

May I add, in closing, that we consider it of the first importance that the United States make it their special care, at the end of the war, to see that the decisions arrived at at the next Hague conference embrace all cases of possible international conflict, and that they be backed, when necessary, by an international armed force, for from this war must come a lasting peace among all civilized nations? I see only the United States in a position to bring about these two desiderata, and it is my intention to seize every occasion as a writer to prepare the public mind for this action, which can be made the grandest in the history of humanity.

ALPHONSE AULARD,
Professor at the Sorbonne.

Paris, December 22, 1914.

AN APPEAL FOR ALBANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Americans feel justly indignant over the violation of Belgian neutrality, and American sympathy in concrete form is helping to feed and shelter the starving and homeless women and children of Belgium. The spectacular elements of this phase of the European conflict attract so much attention that we ignore the fact that in Albania women and children are starving because they have been driven from their homes by Italian and by Greek soldiers.

Italy's seizure of Avlona has been noticed by the American press because it has a bearing on the general war situation, but on the previous grab of Kortsche by Greek soldiers American papers have preserved silence. Who would know without reading the *Dielle*, the Albanian weekly published at Boston, that the Greeks had caused great want in Kortsche, a city of 25,000 souls, by seizing it, plundering it of all its provisions, and forcing the Albanian men into the Greek army? This was recently done, although Greece is not at war with any nation, and has no right to the territory she took. Greece has no grudge against this youngest of nations, for many of the chief heroes of the Greek war for independence were of Albanian stock.

The Albanian right to an independent nationality is incontrovertible. Although the newest of flags, this black double-headed eagle on a red ground is the symbol of King Pyrrhus, who flourished before the Slavs came down into the Balkans. The Albanians were not only in possession of the country before the Slavs, they also antedate the Greeks, and have a legitimate claim to be descendants of the aboriginal Pelasgians. Their language is entirely distinct, a remnant of the old Illyric speech, but the Turks tried to suppress it, making Greek the language of instruction in every institution except the American Missionary College for girls at Kortsche.

Aside from the fact that American missionaries have helped to keep alive this ancient speech, Americans should be especially interested in the fortunes of Albania, because the Vatra, or Pan-Albanian Society of this country, has played as large a share in the nationalist struggle as Irish-Americans did in the fight for home rule. The Vatra, or "Hearth," was incorporated on June 13, 1912, out of the union of two societies founded in 1906, the Bessa, "Oath of Protection," of Boston, Mass., and the Malli Memedhent, "Love of the Fatherland," of Jamestown, N. Y. At present the Vatra has thirty-five branches in America, with over 5,000 due-paying members. The nationalist paper, the *Dielle*, is published at 97 Compton Street, Boston, the present headquarters of the Vatra. The *Dielle* was first issued in 1909, under the editorial management of Father Fan S. Noli, a priest of the Albanian Orthodox Church, and among its editors since have been a Mohammedan, a Catholic, two Protestants, and two members of the Albanian Orthodox Church. This circumstance shows that the Albanians have less bigotry than other Balkan nations. It would take too much space to give the history of the part which Albanians trained in American colleges, and active in the Bessa and Vatra, have played towards realizing their national aspirations, but in a sense America has unconsciously fostered this new nation, and American sympathy should take the concrete form of giving aid to their cause. Contributions for the starving women and children of Albania can be sent to the present head of the Vatra, Mr. Denis Kambury, at 97 Compton Street, Boston.

JOSEPH F. GOULD.

Norwood, Mass., December 27, 1914.

MADAME DE STAEL AND THE FUTURE OF AVIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The newspapers report that the activity of aircraft is making some decided changes in habits of life in various European centres. In war or peace, aerial navigation is becoming a social factor of importance; and it is interesting to note that approximately a century ago, while France was involved in another general European war, Madame de Staël wrote in her preface to the second edition of the study "De la Littérature Considérée dans ses Rapports avec les Institutions Sociales" (p. 9 of the Charpentier edition of 1872):

". . . . En découvrant la boussole, on a découvert le Nouveau-Monde, et l'Europe morale et politique a depuis ce temps éprouvé des changements considérables. L'imprimerie est une découverte des sciences. Si l'on dirigeait un jour la navigation aérienne, combien les rapports de la société ne seraient-ils pas différents!"

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE.

Chicago, December 26, 1914.

FOR "MELOS" READ "BELGIUM."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is an important book which deals with the war, and which seems to have escaped the notice of your correspondents. To be sure, it was written by Prof. Gilbert Murray some months before the war, and its title is "Euripides and His Age." Yet it may be worth while to consider the following passage (pp. 124-128, in the American edition) for its light on *Kultur*. The reader can, of course, readily correct for himself the *errata:* for "Athens" read "Germany"; for "Melos" read "Belgium."

"During the summer and winter of that year [416 B. C.] there occurred an event of very small military importance, and no direct political consequences, to which, nevertheless, Thucydides devotes twenty-six continuous chapters in a very significant part of his work, the part just before the final catastrophe. The event is the siege and capture by the Athenians of a little island called

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Melos, the massacre of all its adult men, and the enslavement of the women and children. The island had no military power. It had little commerce, and lived on its own poor agriculture. Its population was not large. When it was depopulated, five hundred colonists were enough to people it again. Why, then, this large place in Thucydides's brief and severe narrative? Only, I think, because of the moral issue involved and the naked clarity of the crime. Thucydides tells us of a long debate between the Athenian envoys and the Melian Council, and professes to report the arguments used on each side. No doubt there is conscious artistic composition in the reports. We cannot conclude that any Athenian envoy used exactly these horrible words. But we can be sure that Thucydides took the war on Melos as the great typical example of the principles on which the Athenian war party were led to act in the later part of the war. We can go further, and be almost sure that he selected it as a type of sin leading to punishment—that sin of 'Hubris,' or pride, which, according to Greek ideas, was associated with some heaven-sent blindness and pointed straight to a fall.

"In cool and measured language the Athenian envoys explain to the Melian Senate—for the populace is carefully excluded—that it suits their purpose that Melos should become subject to their empire. They will not pretend—being sensible men, and talking to sensible men—that the Melians have done any wrong or that they have any lawful claim to Melos, but they do not wish any islands to remain independent: it is a bad example to the others. The power of Athens is practically irresistible: Melos is free to submit or to be destroyed. The Melians, in language carefully controlled, but vibrating with suppressed bitterness, answer as best they can. Is it quite safe for Athens to break all laws of right? Empires are mortal; and the vengeance of mankind upon such a tyranny as this? . . . 'We take the risk of that,' answer the Athenians. 'The immediate question is whether you prefer to live or die.' The Melians plead to remain neutral. The plea is, of course, refused. At any rate, they will not submit. They know Athens is vastly stronger in men and ships and military skill; still, the gods may help the innocent. ('That risk causes us no uneasiness,' say the envoys. 'We are quite as pious as you.') The Lacedæmonians are bound by every tie of honor and kinship to intervene. ('We shall, of course, see that they do not.') In any case, we choose to fight and hope rather than to accept slavery. 'A very regrettable misjudgment,' say the Athenians; and the war proceeds to its hideous end.

"As I read this Melian dialogue, as it is called, again and again, I feel more clearly the note of deep and angry satire. Probably the Athenian war-party would indignantly have repudiated the reasoning put into the mouths of their leaders. After all, they were a democracy; and, as Thucydides fully recognizes, a great mass of men, if it does commit infamies, likes first to be drugged and stimulated with lies. It seldom, like the wicked man in Aristotle's Ethics, 'calmly sins.' But, in any case, the massacre of Melos produced on the minds of men like Thucydides and Euripides—and we might probably add almost all the great writers who were anywise touched by the philosophic spirit—this peculiar impression. It seemed like a revelation of naked and triumphant sin. And we can but feel the intention with which Thucydides continues his story. 'They put to death all the Melians whom they found of man's estate, and made slaves of the women and children. And they sent later five hundred colonists and took the land for their own.

"'And the same winter the Athenians sought to sail with a greater fleet than ever before and conquer Sicily. . . .' This was the great Sicilian expedition that brought Athens to her doom." WILLIAM CHASE GREENE.

Cambridge, Mass., January 6.

"O. HENRY" AND NORTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On December 2 last, under the auspices of the Literary and Historical Association of North Carolina, a national memorial in honor of William Sidney Porter ("O. Henry") was unveiled in the new State Administration Building at Raleigh, N. C. The memorial, the funds for which were contributed by the people of North Carolina and by admirers of the writings of "O. Henry" from many parts of the United States, took the form of a bronze tablet with medallion, executed by the sculptor Lorado Taft, of Chicago.

During the period in which I was engaged in raising the "O. Henry" memorial fund there arose in several quarters an interesting query with reference to the justice of North Carolina's "claim" to "O. Henry." A Bostonian was obsessed with the delusion that the movement to erect a national memorial to "O. Henry" at the capital of his native State was an "attempt to elevate him to a State hero." A Virginian mockingly questioned the attachment of "O. Henry" to his native State, and expressed the desire to see the whole theme of discussion of "O. Henry" as a writer raised from the "provincial level." In a long editorial, the Springfield *Republican* speaks of the "efforts to boom 'O. Henry' as a son of North Carolina," and quotes at length from articles in the *Times-Dispatch,* of Richmond, Va., to prove that the crassly misnamed "efforts to boom, etc.," are meeting with "sharp opposition in the South." From Texas, in the *Times-Herald,* of Waco, we are positively assured: "O. Henry would never have been heard of had he remained in North Carolina. He had to feel the thrill of Texas history and get the inspiration of the Texas prairies for Fame to find him. . . . O. Henry doesn't belong to North Carolina, but to the Lone Star State. Where one is born is accidental; where one finds one's self is where one belongs." From still another quarter we are assured with equal positiveness: "Texas did nothing to encourage his aspirations, nor did Texas recognize his genius and ability until, as a resident of New York, he acquired fame in the literary world. It was in New York that he 'found' himself, and, according to the philosophy of the Waco paper, New York has the best claim to O. Henry, while North Carolina, his native State, has a right to claim William Sidney Porter."

In this letter I have no interest in attacking the unsolvable problem as to whether "O. Henry" *belongs* to Texas, to New York, to North Carolina—or, for that matter, to Louisiana, to Pennsylvania, to South America, or to the world. Any and all of these localities are quite at liberty to lay claim to "O. Henry," to assert their "right" to him, and, if they have in sufficient measure the courage of conviction, to erect a monument to his genius. In the recently erected memorial in Raleigh the nation now honors the remarkable writer of short-stories, who has most fittingly been termed "the world's O. Henry." But I am greatly interested in the truth or falsity of the reiterated statement that "O. Henry" was deficient in any attachment to his native section. It is an interesting question in itself—quite irrespective of any bearing it may be imagined to have upon his art. Is any credence to be placed in the statement: "If 'O. Henry' loved his 'mother State' 'on the side,' he must have been ashamed of her 'in comp'ny'"?

It is the unfailing testimony of those few who knew Will Porter most intimately—and certainly there were very few who enjoyed his intimate confidence and friendship—that his most marked trait was reticence. It cannot be doubted, I venture to believe, that the innate reticence of the man—his evasion of intimacy with others, his guardianship of the sanctity of personality—fully explains his avoidance of the autobiographical in his stories. His feelings about his birthplace were too tenderly intimate to himself, his sentiment for the scene of his greatest happiness in the purple twilight of the great mountains too sacred, to be exposed for American daws to peck at. Yet once he broke his unalterable rule in "Let Me Feel Your Pulse," and as I stood, not long ago, near that "country house," only "seven miles from Asheville," I thought of his words in that story, "John has a country home seven miles from Pineville. It is at an altitude and on the Blue Ridge Mountains in a State too dignified to be dragged into this controversy. . . . Amaryllis met and greeted us. . . . It was about twilight and the mountains came up nobly to Miss Murfree's description of them." Lured by stories of a wonderful flower with mystical curative powers, the neurasthenic and the old doctor "hunted the cure-all plant among the mountains and valleys of the Blue Ridge." At last they found it—and the shy heart of the author is laid bare for one fleeting instant in the cry: "What rest more remedial than to sit with Amaryllis in the shade, and, with a sixth sense, read the wordless Theocritan idyl of the gold-bannered blue mountains marching orderly into the dormitories of the night?"

The love of Will Porter for his old home State, his feeling of an intimate bond with the place of his birth, find whimsical expression in his quaint letters "back home" from Texas, a few of which have been printed. After writing hundreds of short-stories, he at last resolved to write a novel into which he intended to put the very best of himself with the greatest art and skill at his command. It was to be a *true* story—the actual revelation of the life of a man—"nothing but the truth." It was not to be a mere autobiography—the hero was to have a distinct personality of his own. Yet it is in the highest degree significant that the scene of the story was to be laid in a "somnolent little Southern town"—the Greensboro—who doubts it?—of his boyhood days. And who doubts that—under cover of his denial that it was to be pure autobiography—he meant to tell his own story? Of his "hero," he says in words which only betray him: "I'm going to take him through all the main phases of life

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—wild adventure, city, society, something of the 'under world,' and among many characteristic planes of the phases. I want him to acquire all the sophistication that experience can give him, and always preserve his individual honest *human* view, and have him tell the *truth* about everything." Death robbed the world of this true record of the life of a man—the man William Sidney Porter—a record that would have been none the less "true," I dare say, for being art and not photographic reminiscence.

When genius scintillated in the brain of "O. Henry" and invention ran madly from his pen, "the city" was the queen of Manhattan. New York was a siren, with the meritricious glitter of a Great White Way. North Carolina was a mother, with the solace of the cradle of the great dark mountains. Even when he was most remote in distance from his native State—and perhaps uncertain of his return—it was to the home land, to North Carolina, that his heart unerringly turned. "I knew 'Bill' Porter perhaps better than any other man on earth, before he wrote his 'Cabbages and Kings,'" Mr. Al. J. Jennings, of Oklahoma, recently said in a letter to me. "We sat under mangrove trees in the little town of Corilla, in the heat of the sun, looking far out across the billowy sea, trying to fathom what might be doing in the old United States. He talked of North Carolina and childhood; I, of my native State, Virginia; but neither asked the other why he was in Central America. Porter was a child of fortune, I was a fugitive from justice."

One who knew him has recently pointed out that Will Porter held the theory, promulgated in his "A Cosmopolite in a Café," that "since Adam no true citizen of the world has existed." In his view, no man could be a "cosmopolite all through." Himself a nomad in temperament, he quotes with approval from the poem "The Cities," of that "great almost-cosmopolite," Kipling, that "the men that breed from them, they traffic up and down, but cling to their cities' hem as a child to the mother's gown." "Just as the hero of that story fought a man on account of things said about the 'bum sidewalks and water supply of the place he came from,' so would Will Porter, who was an artist with his fists, have fought any man who had, in his presence, spoken evil of Greensboro—for 'he wouldn't stand for no knockin' the place.'" Underneath the banter and the jest, how much of the true love of the man for his South, for his home, lurk in these words of his from a letter recently published: "Can't get to loving New Yorkers. Live all alone in two big rooms on quiet old Irving Place, three doors from Wash. Irving's old home. Kind of lonesome. Was thinking lately (since the April moon commenced to shine) how I'd like to be down South, where I could happen over to Miss Ethel's or Miss Sallie's and sit on the porch—not in a chair—on the edge of the porch, and lay my straw hat on the steps and lay my head back against the honeysuckle on the post—and just talk. And Miss Ethel would go in directly (they say presently up here) and bring out the guitar. She would complain that the E string was broken, but no one would believe her, and pretty soon all of us would be singing the 'Swanee River' and 'In the Evening by the Moonlight' and—oh, gol darn it, what's the use of wishing?"

One note, one quality, in his stories bespeak his Southern origin—the chivalric note, the quality of inextinguishable romance. It was here in North Carolina that he found the sweetheart of his youth; here he found surcease from metropolitan care in the enfolding shelter of the Blue Ridge; here he sleeps; here his fame is memorialized. As a Southerner he loved the South; as a true artist, he realized her amiable vices, her lovable weaknesses. Many of his stories—"The Guardian of the Accolade," "The Emancipation of Billy," "Thimble Thimble," "The Rose of Dixie," "A Municipal Report," "An Adventure in Neurasthenia," for example—testify to his strong and tender feelings for his native section, his admiration for the finer qualities of the South, his faculty of kindly raillery at foibles that are passing with a passing age. Like another great humorist, Alphonse Daudet, who amused a world with delicate satire of his beloved South, "O. Henry" let his shrewd raillery play with kindly light over the South of his own birth—her manners, her customs, and her people.

ARCHIBALD HENDERSON.

Chapel Hill, N. C., December 28, 1914.

LUTHER S. LIVINGSTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Luther Livingston, a resident of Scarsdale, N. Y., from 1902 to 1913, died at 8 Frisbie Place, Cambridge, Mass., on December 24. He was born in Michigan forty-eight years ago. His noteworthy career as bibliographer, so tragically ended, began in a book-shop in Grand Rapids, and developed at the New York store of Dodd, Mead & Co., where his talent for minute, painstaking research, and his marvellously retentive memory, won him the charge of the old and rare books. By steadfast labor he became, perhaps, foremost in America in knowledge of first editions, Shakespeareana, and all the recondite details of the precious volumes sought by collectors. On June 1, 1910, he formed the firm of Dodd & Livingston, from which ill-health forced his retirement in 1913. At the time of his death he held, at Harvard University, the position of librarian of the Memorial Library, erected to Harry A. Widener by Widener's mother. (Young Widener, a keen lover of rare books, went down in the Titanic, with an almost priceless volume in his pocket.)

To his devoted friends at Scarsdale Mr. Livingston was better known for the wonderful garden—a botanical museum, really—that he and Mrs. Livingston developed on their three gneiss-underlaid acres, wherein were varieties not in the Hunnewell or other famous gardens, and from which a box of roots went yearly to the Bronx Botanical Garden. He had also collected orchids in Colombia, and had a large collection of butterflies.

No due summary of his laborious and productive career can here be given. Among book-lovers he was best known for his profoundly accurate monographs. It was his honor to have detected variations between editions previously supposed to be the same, and to discover, by slight discrepancies of type or composition, valuable facts as to the period and circumstances of publication of early editions. In such work as this he stood almost alone for precision and authority. He pursued the works of Kipling to their sources, and an article of his in the *Bookman* in 1899 described Kipling's first book. In 1903 he edited, with prefatory notes, reprints of original editions of Milton's "Comus," Hariot's "Virginia," and Brereton's "Virginia." The standard reference work on rare editions, "Book Prices Current," was orginated and largely compiled by him; and, under his supervision, annual supplements were issued. Unpublished poems of Robert Louis Stevenson he found and printed in 1912. Bibliographies of George Meredith, James Russell Lowell, and many others attest his diligent study. His comprehensive knowledge of early Americana was drawn upon by hundreds of people. In the spring of 1914 he composed and compiled a book privately printed for the Grolier Club, of which he was a member, depicting Benjamin Franklin's little-known press at Passy, in France, and the books, pamphlets, and broadsides which that unique American printed there. Another Franklin book was in process when Mr. Livingston died. Of recent years he was a valued contributor to the *Nation*.

On Election Day, 1911, a fall on a cliff at his home broke two limbs, and he soon learned of an uncommon brittle quality of his bones, necessitating an existence in a wheeled-chair. With a stout heart, and with Mrs. Livingston's matchless aid, he kept at his chosen work until, last summer, digestive difficulties, œdema, and anæmia set in, resulting in a sadly depleted condition, from which on Christmas Eve he quietly passed from this life.

X.

New York, December 25, 1914.

JOHN MUIR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In none of the various accounts of John Muir which have come to my notice since his death have I seen any mention of one of the most attractive of his published writings, "Stickeen," the story of a little dog which accompanied him on one of his expeditions in the Alaskan ice region. My copy of the little volume was read with delight by all the family, young and old alike, then lent to various others who found it equally pleasurable, and finally used as a Christmas present. I speak on the basis of a fair test, then, in expressing the opinion that a wide reading of "Stickeen" would be of immeasurable value in the cultivation of a kindly sympathy not merely for the dog, but for our animal friends in general. We know how certain books of the same tendency have caught the popular attention and sold by scores of thousands. I am convinced that a neat low-priced edition of "Stickeen," preferably with a brief introductory sketch of the life of the author, would meet similar public favor; and fortunately the copyright is in the hands of a house which would be perfectly willing to limit its own profit if it should appear likely that widespread moral good could thus be accomplished.

W. H. JOHNSON.

Granville, O., December 28, 1914.

"JITNEY 'BUSES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This autumn automobiles, mostly of the Ford variety, have begun to run in competition with the street cars in this city. The newspapers call them "Jitney 'buses," but no one inside or outside the newspaper offices seems able to tell why. Can any of the readers of your weekly furnish an explanation of the term?

JAMES MAIN DIXON.

Los Angeles, Cal., November 28, 1914.

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Literature

THE MID-DISRAELI.

The Life of Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield. By William Flavelle Monypenny and George Earle Buckle. Vol. III: 1846-1855. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3 net.

Mr. Buckle, well known as editor of the London *Times*, succeeding the late Mr. Monypenny in the luckless list of Disraeli's biographers, explains that the author of the first two volumes left behind him no "consecutive manuscript" for this third. The Beaconsfield papers he had arranged and classified, and he had completed his analysis of "Tancred." This last appears as a chapter in the present work. Though perhaps the most autobiographical of Disraeli's novels, "Tancred" surely did not require all the space devoted to it here. The Life is dragging itself out unconscionably without such needless *longueurs*. But it may be that Mr. Buckle felt bound piously to accept Mr. Monypenny's legacy. His own pace is leisurely enough; and some of his political expositions, besides being verbose, are more or less partisan. Nor has he quite the explicit frankness of Mr. Monypenny in dealing with Disraeli's escapades. Yet he evidently intends to tell the whole truth, and of his general fairness and competence there can be no question.

These nine years of Disraeli's life mark his great transition. Till 1847, or thereabouts, despite his manifest genius, he had been regarded as in essence an adventurer. Now he was to become a political power, actually a leader of the party which boasted itself the aristocratic party. How was the change effected? We know what Disraeli was thought to be at the time of Peel's overthrow. Greville put it down brutally in 1847: "a character so disreputable that he cannot be trusted." The Queen herself, whose darling among Prime Ministers he was to become, began with a marked aversion to him. "I do not approve of Mr. D.," she told Stanley, when it was a question of forming a Conservative Government in 1851; "I do not approve of his conduct to Sir Robert Peel." And the next year the Prince Consort wrote to Lord Derby about the "laxity of the political conscience" which Disraeli had displayed. Yet Victoria early found him entertaining. When he became Leader of the House, she said that his reports to her were "very curious," "much in the style of his books." As for the mass of the Tories, the landed gentry, they were ready to applaud Disraeli's speeches, perfectly willing to make use of him to discomfit the Liberals, but could be brought only reluctantly and with wry faces to accept him as a party leader. But they soon found that he was indispensable and inevitable. Greville, again, this time in 1848, wrote in his diary: "Bad as he is, he seems the best man they have. . . . In fact, they have nobody." To this Mr. Buckle agrees: "He was their only man of genius." Derby could not possibly form a Ministry and leave Disraeli out. As Gladstone put it in a private letter at the time, Disraeli was "at once the necessity of Lord Derby and his curse."

Disraeli knew himself to be the indispensable man, and bided his time. This does not mean that he did nothing to expedite the inevitable choice. He displayed an increasing gravity in his speeches and actions, as befitting a political leader. He adopted a quieter dress, as one aware that it was now "his business to conciliate the prejudices of the respectable, the decorous, and the commonplace." It is true that at times he affected to despise the struggle for place. He told Hobhouse that "the summit of Heaven's bliss was to be possessed of £300 a year, and live a retired life amongst books." At one moment of disgust, he wrote that he "would not take the trouble of riding up to town to be installed leader of any party whatever." Yet, in fact, he was resolved to have the post to which he felt himself entitled. In and out of the House he worked for it incessantly. His letters to his sister and to his wife show to what social martyrdom he submitted himself in order to ingratiate himself with Tory noblemen. As Mr. Buckle admits, Disraeli "seems to have done a little discreet wire-pulling." He also helped his chances greatly by publishing his Life of Lord George Bentinck. This is really one of the best of Disraeli's writings. It had an immediate strategic purpose, but it is filled with shrewd and wise remarks about public affairs, and has an urbanity of tone and a fairness towards opponents quite unusual with Disraeli. Moreover, in order further to commend himself to the Tory Squires, he became a Squire himself. He purchased Hughenden. But he did it, as Mr. Buckle reveals, with Bentinck money. Both Lord George and his brother were ready to back Disraeli in playing what they and he called the "high game" of politics. Without the Bentinck loan, he could not have bought his estate in the country, for he was still loaded with debts. How great they were, nobody knew; not the man of business whom Disraeli got to look after his affairs; probably not Disraeli himself. His wife cleared off £13,000 of debt, but its remaining burden was still crushing. Again and again he had to "resort to the usurers whom he had already found so expensive." Yet Mr. Buckle assures us: "Fortunately, his temperament was such that, save at occasional periods of depression, he was able, so long as he was not absolutely liable to arrest, to ignore his debts altogether, and to pursue his literary and political career entirely undisturbed by their shadow." This of the man who was about to take charge of the finances of England as Chancellor of the Exchequer!

To be fair to Disraeli, he did not want that office in the short-lived Derby Government. He protested to the Prime Minister that he was not fitted for it. But Derby told him to depend upon the permanent officials: "they will give you the figures." Again it was a case of the Conservatives having nobody else. Disraeli led the House, and did it well. He brought in two Budgets, on the second of which the Ministry was driven from office. And if he did not display any marked financial ability, he did show himself capable of enormous industry, and justified Derby in asserting that Disraeli's Budget speeches had disposed of the stupid notion "that a man possessing high ability, a vivid imagination, and great eloquence, cannot master the driest commercial and financial topics." But in this sphere Gladstone carried too many guns for him. Disraeli fought hard to stave off defeat. He even made a bid for the support of the Radicals, sending for Bright to ask if they would not help him in overcoming the "old-stagers" and the "red-tapists." But Bright only laughed at him. The Government was turned out, and this volume ends leaving Disraeli to face another long period in Opposition.

The mid-Disraeli of these pages has not the piquant interest of either his earlier or later years. The transition stage meant a certain dimming of young audacities by increasing caution. The thoroughbred was having to subdue himself to work in harness. Yet the man's power was shown in his submitting to things distasteful. And his adroit political management was never better displayed than in his slowly cutting away the Tory party from the dead doctrine of protection. He had his own past to repudiate, but this held small difficulty for him. In 1847, after the disastrous election, Disraeli declared that "the great question of Protection is not dead, but is only sleeping." But three years later he was privately saying that "Protection is not only dead, but damned." Between those two statements lay the efforts which he afterwards described as the means by which "I withdrew the Tory party gradually from the hopeless question of Protection." In foreign affairs, the period was not one of marked activity for Disraeli, though he made several notable speeches on European policy. With the rise of the spirit of nationality in Italy, he had no sympathy, calling it "this modern, newfangled, sentimental principle." This attitude, his biographer frankly admits to be "a serious blot on Disraeli's reputation for prescience." Per contra, he was during these years exalting the rôle of the Colonies in the British Empire. He would have had them directly represented in Parliament. Such ideas were ahead of his day. Nevertheless, there remains his famous letter to Lord Malmesbury, falling within this period, in which he wrote that "these wretched Colonies will all be independent, too, in a few years, and are a millstone round our necks." But in view of the entire evidence, Mr. Buckle is justified in saying that this was "inspired by the irritation of the moment" and did not indicate Disraeli's "real sentiments about the Empire."

It must not be thought that the "Asian mystery" of Disraeli's character did not manifest itself in these middle years. On the moral side, his biographer finds several hard nuts to crack. Disraeli gives an ac-

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count of Sir Robert Peel's final attitude towards himself which is inconsistent with Gladstone's more authoritative version. It is also inconsistent with the known facts. Mr. Buckle's explanation is that Disraeli was "a man of high imagination, with no gift of accuracy in detail." No better defence can be made of Disraeli's statement, in 1854, that he had it "from the highest quarter," obviously meaning the Queen, that he, and not Derby, would be summoned to form the next Conservative Government. His biographer can only say that this is "almost incredible." In 1852 Wellington died, and it fell to Disraeli to speak of him in the House. About this he wrote to his wife that he was "a little disturbed," "all the world expecting a great speech from me." In order not to disappoint expectations, he coolly plagiarized from an old article by Thiers on Marshal Gouvion de St. Cyr. The plagiarism was promptly exposed. Disraeli made no public defence. To Monckton Milnes he wrote that he had not read the passage for twenty-five years. "Association of ideas brought it back. . . . I summoned it from the cavern of my mind. Unfortunately, the spirit was too faithful." It was. It even came back in the verbal form, not of the French original, but of an accessible English translation. Mr. Buckle thinks that most people will be content with "Disraeli's own confession and avoidance." He admits, however, that Disraeli's "reputation suffered at the time, and the innumerable jokes in *Punch* and elsewhere did him and his colleagues no good."

With a natural professional interest, Mr. Buckle devotes much space to the *Press*, which Disraeli founded in 1853, because, as he wrote to those whom he asked to back the venture, "the state of the press as regards our party has become intolerable." It was all along a losing enterprise. Disraeli sold out his interest in 1858, and the paper expired in 1866. But for a time it enlisted brilliant pens. Bulwer Lytton wrote for it, and so did Shirley Brooks and Tom Taylor and Dean Mansel. It was a militant party organ, "somewhat highly colored for modern taste," Mr. Buckle admits. He also refers to the "curious facetiæ and squibs which were in fashion at the time." They may have had a savor at the moment, but it has vanished with the lapse of years.

During all this time, Disraeli overflowed, in letters and talk, with comments upon public men. Many of them were sagacious; some utterly mistaken. In 1847, Louis Napoleon predicted to him the coming Bonapartist restoration in France. Disraeli's comment was, "I thought I was talking to a madman." And of Palmerston in 1855, he wrote to Lady Londonderry that "he is really an impostor, utterly exhausted, and at the best only ginger-beer and not champagne, and now an old painted pantaloon, very deaf, very blind, and with false teeth which would fall out of his mouth when speaking if he did not hesitate and halt so in his speech." This of a man on the eve of ten years of almost absolute power!

Some Costume Novels

REPRESENTATIVES OF CURRENT FICTION.

Anne Feversham. By J. C. Snaith. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The Comrade of Navarre. By Harriet Malone Hobson. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press.

The Witch. By Mary Johnston. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Oddsfish! By Robert Hugh Benson. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

It was only a year or two ago that Prof. W. L. Phelps, of Yale, writing of "Realism and Reality in Fiction," alluded to "the recent revival of the historical romance, which shot up in the nineties, flourished mightily at the end of the century, and has already faded." Faded it has, perhaps; its blossom is now somewhat less highly colored and less generally admired. But it has by no means withered on the stalk, as the present season's crop attests. To change the figure, there are still not a few persons bold enough to adventure in the crazy old boat that once bore Scott and Stevenson so handsomely; and it cannot be supposed that they would persist if there were not some plaudits from the shore.

The truth is, there will always be an audience for the good costume novel, as well as for the good costume play. No doubt Mr. Phelps was right in asserting that the "revival" of the nineties "was a protest, not against reality, but against realism"—if it had to be taken as a protest against anything. The historical romance represents, certainly, an escape from realism, at its worst to a land of silly pretence, at its best to a land of reality invested with the glamour of eld. So a tale of "old unhappy far-off things, and battles long ago," may, with the aid of that glamour, succeed in giving unwonted dignity and beauty to human character and action which are in themselves perfectly real and natural.

Among the four romances here to be spoken of, one we include frankly as "the awful example." The author of "The Comrade of Navarre" has, we learn from the present title-page, written two earlier works known as "Jinks' Inside" and "Sis Within." It would seem that she has here ventured upon new ground. She might well have feared to tread there. This is the kind of book that makes a laughing stock of historical romance. It is costume, and nothing else—costume of the flimsiest and most grotesque sort, hired for the occasion. The plot is good enough for the purpose; concerns a henchman of King Henry of Navarre, who has the physical strength of ten and the moral strength of ten times ten. He is a stanch Huguenot, and in the end refuses to share the apostasy of the master he adores. Unluckily, he moves like a puppet, and speaks a tongue that never was on land or sea; the style of the whole narrative is froth and fustian, a jargon of quasi-archaisms and modern vernacular.

"I will not leave you, Andy Caulderwood, not even though the devil and all his minions were howling upon my track. . . . Get you upon my back, and that right speedily." . . .

"Get you hence," he snorted. . . . "On your way, lad, for the good God's sake."

This is the kind of thing casually offered under the evident impression that, if you twist your words sufficiently, they must belong to some bygone date or other.

J. C. Snaith is an old practitioner in this field. His "Anne Feversham" (published in England as "The Great Age"), is a far better performance than "The Comrade of Navarre." But one has very strongly the feeling that it is a performance, a "stunt," deliberately undertaken, and executed with a good deal of ingenuity. Fustian is avoided in the main, but there are far too many anachronisms. Does Mr. Snaith really think phrases like "step lively" belonged to the age of Elizabeth? As for the treatment of historical figures, his boldness has hardly justified itself. With Elizabeth herself he has not fared so ill, for with a ruff and a stomacher and a round oath or two we can all build a passable Queen Bess. To put Shakespeare on the scene and make him talk and move is a far more perilous enterprise. Nobody, not even Landor, has succeeded at it. Mr. Snaith shows us an amiable human figure, a kindly, hard-working shake-scene, who speaks a tongue easily recognizable as Shakespearean, and who puts himself to no small trouble in procuring the happiness of the hero and heroine of the romance. Anne is daughter of Sir John Feversham, Constable of Nottingham Castle. Imprisoned there is young Gervase Heriot, victim of a plot against him by a Wicked Uncle, involving an inheritance. Gervase is about to be beheaded by orders of the Queen, when Anne discovers him, and they run away together to become vagabonds, and, finally, members of Shakespeare's company of players. So it comes about that Anne creates the part of Rosalind before the Queen, whereupon the whole business is straightened out as comfortably as the troubles of Orlando and his mistress in the play. What the story lacks is the spontaneity and gusto which are the first ingredients of living romance.

In a recent *Atlantic Monthly* article, Edward Garnett has included Mr. Snaith in a list of English novelists "of genuine merit," disposing of Miss Mary Johnston among the merely "clever popular favorites" of America. The distinction seems arbitrary. Neither is a romancer of the highest order, but in that lower order which may be rather dubiously honored as "better than the average" they stand on fairly even terms. Miss Johnston has no humor—there Mr. Snaith has the advantage of her; but otherwise her work, certainly her latest work, is quite as good. In "The Witch" we have again a performance, a thing labored, though labored with skill. It is a study of

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the England of witchcraft, in the last days of Elizabeth. As usual, Miss Johnston has spared no pains in getting up her atmosphere and detail. Again the Queen appears, now in her last and most piteous phase; but it is not a tale of the court. The action centres in a country girl, Joan Heron, and a young physician, Gilbert Aderhold. Circumstances throw them together, and circumstances and malice brand them as witch and sorcerer. Like Mr. Snaith's pair, they escape from prison. They procure passage for America, but are betrayed on the way, and set adrift in an open boat. They are cast upon a tropical island, where they become as gods among the mild native folk. Spanish slavers come; their child is brutally murdered before their eyes (Miss Johnston has of old a taste for horrors). They escape from the slaveship and swim to another island, this one unpeopled; after a time of peace are rescued against their wills by an English ship, taken home, and there recognized at once by the Puritan villain who has plotted against them from the beginning. We leave them entering once more the gate of the prison from which they had fled; Miss Johnston spares us the final scene.

Here is excellent material and good workmanship. The quality lacking is true gusto. Instead, we have a kind of permanent excitability, which calls upon us on every page to be moved, to be impressed, to admit that we are assisting at a wonderful scene or an event of amazing significance. With the best will in the world it is impossible for a reader with a sense of humor, which is a sense of proportion, to keep it up. We cannot always sit, flushed and panting, on the edge of the seat. The story-teller who does not let us relax now and then is too much for us in the end; at worst, he had better drone a bit from time to time. Miss Johnston's seventeenth-century English is well studied. Her narrative style is, as always, tricky rather than original. For example: "So many were with them and so no danger at all was there of escape, that they were left unshackled, were even let to draw a little to themselves."

Monsignor Benson has before this shown himself a skilled artist in this sort. "Oddsfish" is his masterpiece. His sense of the foibles of the costume novel is shown in his title; he nowhere succumbs to them in the text. Nowhere is there a suggestion of quaintness lugged in for effect. This is the more remarkable in view of the fact that he has undertaken the very difficult feat of Thackeray in "Esmond." The story is told by the hero, a gentleman of the Restoration. He is of an English Catholic family, and has intended to take orders, but withdraws from his novitiate with the permission of the Pope himself. Though doubtful of his vocation to be a priest, Roger Mallock desires above all things to serve the Church. He therefore places his life and his fortune at the disposal of the Pope, and becomes a secret emissary to the Court of Charles II. Here he has a most difficult part to play. Charles, at heart a Catholic, lacks the courage, or the rashness, to declare himself, and is led, partly by weakness, and partly by a realization of the temper of his people, to let his own friends die by the malice of Oates and his crew. Roger Mallock's own happiness is sacrificed in his attempts to serve the unstable King, and he has determined to give it all up, at the moment when Charles is stricken with fatal illness. It is Mallock to whom the King appeals, and who brings the blessing of the Church to the King's dying hour. In his brief preliminary note the author says that he has taken all possible pains to make his work historically accurate. "The various plots, the political movements, and the closing scenes of Charles II's life are here described with as much fidelity to truth as is compatible with historical romance. In particular, I do not think that the King himself is represented as doing or saying anything—except, of course, to my fictitious personages—to which sound history does not testify." This suggests one basis of distinction between the genuine historical romance and the costume novel of commerce. But it is not in itself a sufficient basis. A narrative may be as close to history as you like, and yet be quite lifeless and meaningless as fiction. Father Benson's feat is to have not merely recorded the acts and speeches of that monarch who would be merry, but to have shown him alive and breathing, in all his weakness and all his charm, as, we think, no one else has done.

MR. HOLT ON PSYCHIC FORCE.

On the Cosmic Relations. By Henry Holt. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 2 vols. $5.

By "the cosmic relations" Mr. Holt means "the interactions between Soul and Universe," however those terms be conceived or defined (pp. 6-8); but he believes that both "soul" and "universe" signify in reality vastly more than modern science admits, he marshals a formidable array of empirical evidence to prove that they do, and gives in outline a tentative general synthesis or system of philosophy which has room for the new knowledge and yet essays to employ so far as possible principles accepted to-day.

The new knowledge relates to the phenomena which the English Society for Psychical Research has for the past thirty years made peculiarly its own—table-tipping, raps, dowsing, materialization, levitation, stigmata, telepathy, clairvoyance and clairaudience, veridical dreams, possession, and the like. For these and others which he considers Mr. Holt uses a system of technical terms, derived in part from other writers but in part coined by himself, which is based upon a better classification of the phenomena than is presupposed by these more common words, but which cannot be used in a review without lengthy definitions. His evidence is drawn chiefly from the publications of the S. P. R., supplemented, however, by material from other sources, including some interesting experiences of his own.

These phenomena strike the man in the street as strange and incredible, but Mr. Holt endeavors to show that any one who understands the significance of the evolutionary theory ought to look confidently for their occurrence. He briefly sketches the evolution of man in order to fix attention upon the fact that all his powers, and in particular that of knowing, have from the beginning been continuously in course of development from lower to higher forms. Presumably, then, they still are, for what warrants the assumption that the process, uninterrupted throughout myriads of centuries, is now arrested? And what situation could more exactly correspond to the justifiable anticipations of the evolutionary philosopher than that which now presents itself (pp. 63, 71, 943)—the sporadic appearance of new powers, powers of affecting the material world in novel ways, of communicating and receiving knowledge independently of the senses, of perceiving a world of reality hitherto unknown, of which dreams are a confused intimation, but of which man may normally become aware only after death?

Side by side with this evolutionary philosophy, for which Mr. Holt acknowledges his indebtedness to Spencer, he gives another scheme—a species of idealism in some points notably akin to that of the Neo-Platonists, although not directly derived from it. The ultimate reality is "an Ocean of Mind" or "Cosmic Soul" of which Matter is but one mode of expression (p. 161), in which exist the Ideas described by Plato (pp. 321-8), and all conscious states, present, past, and future, of all conscious beings (pp. 308, 397, 845-6, 880, 929). The precise relation of the second scheme to the first is not worked out in detail, but it would seem that the Cosmic Soul is conceived as identical with the "Cosmic Mind Potential" (p. 32) inseparable from matter and force, much as by Romanes (pp. 302, 310, 944), and is also identified with Spencer's "Unknowable" (p. 78). As evidence for the existence of the Cosmic Soul Mr. Holt does not appeal to that immediate experience of it which many mystics assert that they have enjoyed, but rests his case upon its availability as a principle of explanation. The Cosmic Soul is an inexhaustible reservoir of all power and all experience, every individual soul is one with it, and therefore has access to all its treasures and through it to other souls:

> There is at least a fourth position, . . . the hypothesis, as yet very vague and paradoxical, that, although the individual soul is contained within the pretty definite limits of its individuality, yet within those limits it is a portion—a sort of bay, if you please, of the cosmic soul, and is subject to occasional influxes or tides from the cosmic soul in the shape of all sorts of inspirations (which turns the fluid metaphor of a tide into a gaseous one), not only those of music, poetry, hypothesis, eloquence, etc., but of all sorts of dreams and visions, normal or hypnotic, and "possessions" of all degrees, from heteromatic writing up to entire apparent

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substitution, or at least predominance of a soul that, like the minor inspirations or possessions, has drifted in from the cosmic aggregate (p. 337).

In this relation between the individual soul and the Cosmic Soul lies the guarantee of survival:

The suggestion has come to more than one student, and to me very strongly, that when we enter into life—as spermatozoa or star-dust, if you please—we enter into the eternal life, but that the physical conditions essential to our development into appreciating it are a sort of veil between it and our consciousness. In our waking life we know it only through the veil; but when in sleep or trance the material environment is removed from consciousness, the veil becomes that much thinner, and we get better glimpses of the transcendent reality (p. 929).

But Mr. Holt does not trust to any such *a priori* argument to demonstrate the fact of survival. Of the eight hundred odd pages devoted to a survey of superusual phenomena, about five hundred are occupied with those of "possession," and probably nine-tenths of the five hundred with the famous Piper case. He reprints the most important portions of the evidence published by the S. P. R. between 1889 and 1910, adds some interesting unpublished material, and provides the whole with a running comment of his own, designed to bring out the significance of each item, which is by no means the least valuable part of his book. His chief aim throughout is to show that the theories of telepathy from the living and of subliminal or divided selves which have been devised to evade the admission of influence from disembodied spirits, while they will explain the appearance of nearly all the individual items of information, will not explain the reconstitution of the personality of the dead man with his personal memories, tastes, volitions, etc. In the twenty years or so during which Mrs. Piper's trance was carefully studied this was practically a daily occurrence, but its evidential value has never been duly appreciated. A single illustration must suffice. On February 9, 1906, about seven weeks after Dr. Hodgson's death in Boston, an automatic writer in India ("Mrs. Holland"), who had no personal knowledge of him, wrote (1) his name twice in two simple ciphers, (2) the symbol "K 57," and (3) a woman's Christian name. The woman's name, not a common one, was that of a young girl to whom Dr. Hodgson had been engaged in his youth in Australia (she died in 1879). Among his papers in Boston was found a memorandum which showed "that he used K followed by a numeral for some purpose or other." But the use of the cipher is most characteristic to any one who knew Dr. Hodgson's boyish interest in constructing ciphers which no one could read and reading ciphers constructed by others, or who had heard him, as the present writer has heard him, expatiating with his usual energy and enthusiasm upon the beauties of his latest invention in the way of a cipher. In a letter of October 29, 1896, he writes: "Keep the sonnet—glad you like it. The cipher heading —— —— is not likely to be interpreted"—and it has not been. Of these three items the first and third were known to living people at the time "Mrs. Holland's" hand wrote them in India; the second probably was not, but might have been; there is, however, every reason to believe that *all three* were not at that time associated in any mind on earth. Why, then, were they written in sequence by "Mrs. Holland"? Obviously, telepathy from the living will not explain this incident—and it is one of hundreds.

Those upon whom the reality of supernormal phenomena has never been forced, either by personal experience or by unimpeachable first-hand evidence, will probably dismiss Mr. Holt's book with the contemptuous indifference with which they cast aside the mediæval lives of the saints or the tales of Cæsar of Heisterbach or the evidence of the witches' trials, knowing it is all false and not caring to ask why any one ever supposed any of it true. But serious inquirers who have their own reasons for regarding such summary treatment as unsatisfactory will find Mr. Holt's book the most notable contribution since the appearance of Myer's "Human Personality"; partly because it offers a convenient summary of the evidence for survival, including that accumulated since Myer's death, and by its acute criticism of rival theories makes any other interpretation of that evidence difficult, partly because it endeavors to adapt to the needs of the day a system of philosophy which has approved itself to many minds in all ages, and, last but not least, because of the sincerity which pervades it all. Mr. Holt detests shams, and in particular those shams of speech called cant—religious cant, scientific cant, social cant, and even literary cant. With William James he casts them all aside, and writes as he thinks. Some readers will be repelled by his independence of literary convention and free use of colloquial language, others will welcome it as another sign of the dawn of a new era in style, but all will feel that Mr. Holt makes no pretences. He does not pretend to be impartial, but acknowledges that he desires to find warrant to believe that man survives death; he does not pretend to be absolutely consistent, although he strives to avoid inconsistency; he does not pretend to be able to remove all difficulties, but often confesses himself sadly perplexed.

The reader feels himself taken into the confidence of a shrewd and wary mind which has proved its competence by nearly two generations of active and successful participation in affairs of moment; he is not dogmatically instructed, but led by a dialectic in which he can feel himself a participant; he will not assent to all Mr. Holt's reasoning, but he will find real assistance in much of it, and when he comes to the concluding words: "And now good-by and thank you for all your patience. We may not meet here again: for I leave soon; but whether we do or not, perhaps some time we will meet where meeting may be easier"—he will feel that he is parting with a friend.

THE LORE OF THE STREAMS.

Clear Waters: Trouting Days and Trouting Ways in Wales, the West Country, and the Scottish Borderland. By Arthur Granville Bradley. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2 net.

Judged strictly by angling standards, a plausible indictment might be made out against the author of this volume, on more than one count. He does not hesitate, again and again, to gird at "the dry-fly purist." Is it a question, for instance, of the Welsh Dee, whispering to the bards and seers from Taliesin to Tennyson the forgotten secrets of ancient days? "The dry-fly purist, I know, feels none of these things. Nay, he seems almost to resent their association with fishing. He does not understand what they have to do with it, and so there is nothing more to be said." Again, he shows a lurking tendency to overrate the weight of the basket as an element in determining the success of a day's angling. And still further he betrays a disposition to minimize the effect of unlimited angling in depleting the supply of trout. As to the dry-fly war, one not already involved may best subserve the interests of the sport by remaining neutral, but on the other points mentioned the author is treading very closely upon ground that may well be left to the poacher and other tribes of the unregenerate.

Nevertheless, the son of the former Dean of Westminster has written a book which must delight the heart of every lover of angling literature. And the secret of his success lies in the fact that his mind is so richly stored with the lore of the streams which he visits, and his own nature so keenly receptive of the beauties of the nature about him. It is apparently his own feeling that the dry-fly angler must be so minutely attentive to the task of locating the individual trout at which he is subsequently to cast that he can neither recall the lore of the spot nor open his æsthetic pores to its beauty, while the wielder of the wet fly can "chuck and chance it" with his mind and his sensibilities respectively at work on archæology and æsthetics at the same time. If that view is responsible for the quality of this volume, one will do well to admit the validity of the view at once, for all anglers who come to the streams with similar preparation. There is never the slightest scent of the encyclopædia on the lore which Mr. Bradley has used to season his pages. A minute knowledge of the country of which he writes is an integral part of his mental make-up, and the cream of his rich store comes to us with the original flavor of his own personality. The angler that bores us is only the one to whom the primrose on the river's brim is nothing but a yellow primrose. There will always be room for a new book on angling when there is a man of Mr. Bradley's personality and accomplishments to write it.

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Academic Societies

REPORTS OF ANNUAL MEETINGS.

THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

The American Political Science Association held its eleventh annual meeting in the Congress Hotel, Chicago, December 29 to 31. In many respects this was the best meeting which the Association has ever held. The attendance was large; the programmes were all of unusual interest and timeliness, and a successful effort had been made to give an opportunity in connection with each session for an enlivening discussion from the floor.

The presidential address, by Prof. John Bassett Moore, of Columbia University, on "Law and Organization," was an able attempt to reëxamine and reëstablish the foundations of international law in the light of the present world-conflict. Is there any justification for the popular belief, so frequently heard nowadays, that international law has ceased to have any force or efficacy? What is the true character of this body of rules and principles? In the absence of any effective sanction, such as positive municipal law possesses, must we, with John Austin, decline to admit that the rules which attempt to govern the relations between nations are really law? Are they anything more than a body of international morality? The argument of Professor Moore was clearly and cogently to the effect that, resting upon a general international consensus, to which all, or nearly all, the members of the family of nations have given their adhesion, the quality of legal validity must be acknowledged as in fact attaching to international law. It is on the side of international organization that the chief defect in international law is to be found, and it is in this field that the work of developing international law in the future must lie.

"Constitutional and Political Guarantees" was the general subject for a most interesting session, in which papers were read by Prof. W. F. Dodd, of the University of Illinois, and Prof. George H. Mead, of the University of Chicago. Both papers agreed in the view that such safeguards as are inserted in fundamental laws are not to be regarded as imprescriptible or beyond the reach of each generation to alter, modify, or repeal, in accordance with the changing economic and social needs of the time. Professor Dodd's paper was particularly valuable in the analysis and definition which it supplied of the different classes and kinds of guarantees. The discussion on this subject was led by Prof. Ernst Freund and Dean Hall, both of the University of Chicago, and related to the comparative advantages of judicially enforceable safeguards and those not enforceable by the courts.

President James, of the University of Illinois, opened another session with a general paper on "Reorganization of State Government," which was followed by several shorter discussions of prospective changes in the executive and legislative branches of a number of the States. In the opinion of President James, the process towards centralization, so apparent in the United States, even under Democratic Administrations like the present, makes it very problematical whether the States will continue indefinitely as anything more than administrative divisions of a consolidated republic. Ground between the upper millstone of Federal expansion into fields at one time thought to be the exclusive reserve of the States, and the nether millstone of municipal home-rule, the independent field of the State's activity is becoming daily more circumscribed. This constitutes, however, no reason for not undertaking structural reforms which experience and developed theory indicate as expedient. The consensus of opinion in the discussion favored certain radical changes in State government, such as the short ballot, the making appointive by the Governor of most of the other central administrative officials, and the supersession of the present double-chambered Legislature by a comparatively small unicameral body. A report by Professor Dykstra on Gov. Hodges's so-called plan of "State government by commission" was not encouraging as to the likelihood that Kansas will in the near future venture upon this innovation.

The programme on Wednesday afternoon included a paper by President Goodnow, of Johns Hopkins University, on "Reform in China," which aroused one of the most spirited discussions of the entire meeting. His general thesis was that China is so different from countries of Western civilization that the institution of representative government was a problem of the greatest difficulty, and its success most doubtful. The mental attitude of the Chinese towards the world in which they live is one of endurance, if not resignation. They do not feel the impulse to conquer and master the world. China has an agricultural, the Occident an industrial, economy. China's products are chiefly vegetable; the West produces and uses a preponderance of animal and mineral products. The basic unit of Chinese social life is the family; with us it is the individual. Corporate organization in China is unknown and practically impossible, because of the lack of all conception of fiduciary responsibility. The Chinaman's first and highest duty is to his family, with the result that where corporations have been formed nepotism has been a necessary and always present incident. Society in China is not composed of classes and interests, as with us, but there exists instead a dead level of mediocrity —a single great class of small land-owners. The general conclusion of the unlikelihood of success of representative government in China, because of the widely different conditions which prevail there to those which obtain in contemporaneous Europe and America, was challenged by Prof. Charles A. Beard, of Columbia University, who insisted that the very conditions which President Goodnow had pointed out as characterizing Chinese civilization and social organization were those which prevailed in England in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries at the very time when representative government first developed.

This session also contained a report on the work of the city-manager form of city government in Dayton and Springfield, O., by Mr. L. D. Upson, director of the Dayton Bureau of Municipal Research. The interesting question was raised, in the discussion which followed, as to what should be the real character of the city manager. Should he be merely the chief administrative official of the commission which elects him, or ought he to be the real policy-forming organ of the city as well? The danger which the latter alternative would involve of the city manager becoming an issue in elections, and of the commission ceasing to perform any important function, was emphasized by Professor Hatton, of Western Reserve University, while Prof. Herman G. James, of the University of Texas, expressed serious doubt as to whether the city manager could be confined in his functions to that of a mere administrative technician.

Prof. Frederick A. Ogg, of Wisconsin, contributed at this same session a valuable paper on "The Trend in Italian Politics." He emphasized the peculiar trait of Italian character which leads the masses of the people to apotheosize their political leaders. A sort of androlatry conditions and determines the whole course of Italian politics. Depretis and Crispi, in their day, were the recipients of this hero-worship; to-day Giolitti enjoys the adoration of the multitude.

"The Administration of Justice" was the general subject to which one evening session was devoted. Papers by Professor Kales, of Northwestern University, and Dean Hall, of the University of Chicago, discussed the proposals of the American Judicature Society concerning a reform in the organization of the courts. One general inclusive court, embracing the whole judicial system of the State, ought to be substituted for the numerous more or less unrelated separate courts which now complicate and confuse the administration of justice. The Chief Justice would, in this system, be elected by the people for a comparatively short term of four or six years. All the other judges would be appointed by the Chief Justice. The electorate would exercise a control over the associate justices by the provision for an election at varying periods during the tenure of a judge's office. At these elections the question would be voted on whether or not the judge should be allowed to continue in office. If the result were unfavorable, he would at once retire, and his place would be filled by appointment by the Chief Justice. The first of these elections would be held after two years of service, and, if the result were favorable to the judge, he would not be subjected to a second election until after six years of service. If the second election were again favorable, the judge would not be compelled to undergo a third election until he had served twelve or fourteen years, and a favorable result in this case would exempt him from all further elections. The court would be divided into divisions for the conduct of business, but great freedom of transfer, both of cases and of judges, from one division to another, would be secured.

Judge Manuel Levine, of the Cleveland Court of Conciliation, read at this same session one of the most significant papers of the entire meeting. He described in graphic language the wonderful work which the court over which he presides is accomplishing. Thousands of petty disputes, which elsewhere constitute the chief support of a legion of shyster lawyers, who exploit them by encouraging the utmost litigation, are settled by this Court of Conciliation, without the employment of attorneys, and at the cost to the parties of only a few cents.

The last regular session, on Thursday morning, dealt with various topics in the fields of international law and international politics. Prof. Philip M. Brown, of Prince-

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ton University, and Prof. Charles C. Hyde, of Northwestern University, read papers on "The Theory of the Independence and Equality of States." This dogma, Professor Brown contended, is a fiction, and its abandonment by writers of international law would tend towards a clearer perception of actualities in international life. Professor Hershey, of the University of Indiana, contested this view, and urged that, though differing in size, strength, and moral weight, every state in the family of nations enjoys equality before the law with every other. Professor Hershey also developed the theory of nationality, which he held was not necessarily determined by racial, linguistic, ethnographic, or geographical criteria, but by a consciousness of brotherhood which springs from any or all of these factors, or, perhaps, others. The same subject was touched upon in an exceedingly well-written paper by Prof. A. C. Coolidge, of Harvard University. The problem of reconstructing the map of Europe on lines of nationality is much more difficult than it at first sight appears. Nationalistic lines do not conform to natural geographical frontiers, and the problem of how large a nationality must be to deserve recognition in such a political readjustment is itself a serious one. The tendency is not towards small nationalities with larger affiliated ones, but just the reverse. There is more local nationalistic sentiment, with consequent greater political particularism, to-day than ever before.

The Association elected officers for the ensuing year as follows: President, Prof. Ernst Freund, of the University of Chicago; vice-presidents, Prof. Jesse Macy, of Iowa College; Prof. Bernard Moses, of the University of California, and Prof. W. B. Munro, of Harvard University. The place at which the meeting will be held next year was left to the executive council.

WALTER JAMES SHEPARD.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The thirtieth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, held at Chicago on December 28-31, and attended by nearly three hundred members, was an unusually satisfactory one, due in part to the high general level of excellence and interest of the forty papers presented, and in part to the comfortable arrangements of the entertainment committee, by which most of the members were housed in the same hotel in which most of the papers were read.

The centenary of the Napoleonic age suggested the subject of two of the sessions. Professor Johnston, of Harvard, advised the abandonment of the attitude of reverent hush usually adopted in the presence of Napoleon's unquestioned military genius; only by weighing what Napoleon derived in his youth from his instructors, and what he owed to the French Revolution, as well as what he owed to his own peculiarities and genius, can we get a proper approach to the study of his campaigns. When we do that, it becomes clear how much Napoleon was preoccupied with a geometrical bias, how little he adapted himself to the changed conditions of his later campaigns, and how much grim truth there really was in his own remark that he knew as much when he fought his first battle as when he fought his last. Professor Coffin, of Wisconsin, called attention to Napoleon's creation of the *sénatoreries*—districts with good revenues which were bestowed upon Senators, and from which they made very secret reports to the Emperor on all matters which might assist in conserving the state. Some twenty-three of these reports are preserved, but have been little known. Professor Dutcher, of Wesleyan, gave a comprehensive analysis of Napoleonic literature, and led a discussion on the opportunities and needs of Napoleonic research in America. Professor Ford, of Minnesota, sketched eloquently the growth of the Prussian army up to Napoleon's overthrow, and Boyen's military law establishing universal military service—the system which was successively copied from Prussia by other continental nations, and is now, after just a century, being put to so frightful a test.

In ancient history, besides papers by Professor Rogers, of Drew Theological Seminary, on the earliest Assyrian period; by Professor Gray, of Smith College, on Hadrian's little-appreciated opposition to the tendencies of his time, and by Mr. Caldwell, of Columbia, on "The Greek Attitude toward Peace and War," Professor Westermann, of Wisconsin, gave a notable paper, discounting many of the causes ordinarily assigned for the decline of the Roman Empire. He traced the decline rather to the spread of an Oriental agrarian system, which was taken over into the rest of the empire from Egypt and Persia. This Oriental system transformed *coloni* into serfs and discouraged production.

In the history of mediæval England Miss Putnam, of Mount Holyoke College, gave the results of a valuable study. In the general rise of prices following the Black Death, the stipendiary clergy, as well as the peasants, attempted to profit from the national calamity by obtaining increased wages. Thereupon the bishops energetically denounced the avarice, luxury, and oppression of the offending clergy, and framed canons specifying maximum annual wages, which were strikingly similar to the maximum wage laws which Parliament was passing for the laborers at the same time. Professor Trenholme, of Missouri, pointed out that the so-called Peasants' Revolt of 1381 was by no means so exclusively an affair of the peasants as has been generally assumed. It had an important municipal aspect through the fact that the discontented lower elements in the towns seized the occasion to fish in troubled waters and to extend the revolt, in the hope of overthrowing the powerful town oligarchies. Professor Baldwin, of Vassar, described an interesting case before the King's Council in 1366, in which one Ughtred complained that the Sheriff of Yorkshire had illegally imprisoned him on a general suspicion of robbery. He showed how this case, which is one of several that he is editing for the Selden Society, is a good example of the way legal records may be used to throw light on other branches of history besides the law. In financial history Professor Willard, of Colorado, explained the reform under Edward I by which many revenues which had been flowing into the Wardrobe were covered directly into the Exchequer; and Professor Lunt, of Cornell, made clear the clever way in which Edward I managed to get the Pope's consent to a tax of a tenth on his promise to go on a crusade. He never went, but he succeeded in getting a lion's share of the tax, while at the same time shifting from his own shoulders to those of the Pope the brunt of the hostile criticism roused by the tax.

Professor Dow, of Michigan, in a thoughtful essay based on a study of the philosopher's writings, commemorated the anniversary of Roger Bacon (1214-1294). Mr. A. E. Harvey, of the University of Chicago, who has been studying the archives of Basel and towns of southwest Germany, emphasized in an excellent detailed paper the large influence which economic self-interest played in the German anti-clericalism of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

The close connection between Europe and the Orient, which is receiving increasing attention from historical scholars, occupied several speakers. Professor Duncalf, of Texas, showed how slowly the crusading colonists adapted themselves to the Oriental environment in which the Kingdom of Jerusalem was placed, and how they were constantly interfered with by pilgrims from the West who did not appreciate the peculiar arrangements necessary in the East. In the field of diplomacy Professor Jones, of New York University, narrated the story of bribery and deceit which secured the Turco-Venetian treaty of 1540; and Mr. Lord, of Harvard, gave an account of the little-known mission of Gen. Ignatiev to Peking in 1860, by which Russia, without shedding a drop of blood, secured a territory on the Amur twice the size of France. Professor Lybyer, of the University of Illinois, rejected the commonly accepted statement that the obstruction of the Eastern trade routes by the advancing Turks caused the discoveries of Da Gama and Columbus in East and West.

Among the many notable papers on American history space allows mention only of Professor McLaughlin's presidential address on "American History and American Democracy"; Prof. F. J. Turner's subtle analysis of the significance of sectionalism in American history; Professor Farrand's commemoration of the peace with England "One Hundred Years Ago"; Mr. Learned's "Cabinet Meetings under Polk"; the discussion of the genesis of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, led by Professor Hodder; the plea by Professor Trimble, of North Dakota Agricultural College, for more study of agrarian history in the United States; and the suggestion of Professor Woodburn that where State historical societies have no support from the State the teachers of history in the State should urge the establishment of a permanent State historical commission, which should look out for the collection, preservation, and publication of State archives.

The business meeting of the Association had an unusually large attendance, owing in part to the discussion, begun a year ago at Charleston, and continued in the columns of the *Nation* last winter, concerning the election of the officers and committees of the Association. The nominating committee, appointed at Charleston, after making thorough efforts to find a method more satisfactory than the present one for nominating and electing officers, did not advise the adoption of any new machinery. They made, however, the suggestions, which eventually were accepted, that the nominating committee should be chosen a year in advance, not by the Council, but by the business meeting; and also that the nominations be published in advance of the meeting at which they are to be acted upon, and that there should be opportunity for additional nominations.

In view of the criticism of the Council by Dr. Dunbar Rowland and others, the Coun-

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cil itself recommended to the business meeting the appointment of a committee of nine to consider the constitution, organization, and procedure of the Association, and its relation to the American historical review, with instructions to report at the annual meeting in 1915. A substitute motion by Dr. Rowland for a similar committee of thirteen—*absit omen*—was lost by a vote of thirty-one to eighty-eight. The selection of this new committee of nine gave rise to a difficulty, until it was happily solved by adding Dr. Rowland and another to the old nominating committee (in place of two members who were absent), and empowering it to nominate the new committee. The committee of nine who were thereupon nominated and elected are: Professors E. D. Adams, R. D. W. Connor, I. J. Cox, W. A. Dunning, Max Farrand, A. C. McLaughlin, J. F. Rhodes, W. T. Root, and James Sullivan.

The next two regular Christmas meetings will be in Washington in 1915, and in 1916 at Cincinnati. An extra meeting has been arranged by Prof. Morse Stephens for July 19-23 at San Francisco. This Panama-Pacific historical congress will also include the American Asiatic Society, and will have an attractive series of sessions dealing with the Philippines, the Panama Canal, and the relation of the Pacific Ocean to all the principal nations whose shores are washed by its waves.

S. B. F.

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

The forty-sixth annual meeting of the American Philological Association was held at Haverford College, December 29-31, in conjunction with the annual meeting of the Archæological Institute of America.

In four sessions the American Philological Association met by itself. In three other sessions the Association met conjointly with the Archæological Institute. At the first joint session, Prof. Edward Capps, of Princeton University, president of the American Philological Association, delivered his presidential address. Professor Capps's theme was "Reflections on Classical Scholarship in America." Before 1850 America could lay little claim to classical scholarship. There were few opportunities for profound training in the classics; few Americans had studied abroad. Then came the period of dependence upon Germany, the period in which American students of the classics sought training for professorial places by going to Germany and studying under the great classical scholars there. Such men, trained abroad, not only brought back to America high ideals of classical scholarship, but themselves became inspired and inspiring trainers of a new generation. This generation, though under obligations ultimately to Germany, had in the main gained its ideals and mastery of method in America, and so was not as directly or deeply indebted to Germany as its predecessors had been. The last stage in the history was that of increasing emancipation of our classical scholars from German influence, and their increasing independence and originality.

An interesting part of this sketch was that which dealt with the history of textbook-making in classics, and with the establishment of learned journals in which classical scholars might set forth the results of their studies. Fifty years ago there was not a single classical periodical in America. Now, besides the annual volume of the Philological Association itself, and volumes of studies published by various universities, there are two classical periodicals deeply scholarly in character, and two journals, one a monthly, the other a weekly, devoted more strictly to the pedagogical aspects of classical study. Thirty years ago editions of classical authors published in this country were "based" on an edition by some German scholar. In the making of these and other editions, then a wholly necessary labor, much of the energy of our best scholars was consumed. Now, since that task is virtually done, our scholars have been free in recent years to produce books of solid worth on classical subjects.

The papers, whether actually read or merely presented by title, numbered thirty-nine. More or less attention was devoted to the following authors: Æschylus, Aristophanes (two papers), Empedocles, Homer (three papers), Horace, Jordanes, Menander (two papers), Suetonius (two papers), Tacitus, Thucydides, and Vergil. Two papers dealt extensively with Latin inscriptions. A very interesting paper had to do with "Greek Rhetorical Terminology in Puttenham's 'The Arte of English Poesie.'" Two papers, by Professor Hempl, of Stanford University, were summarized in the account of the proceedings of the Archæological Society, published in the *Nation* last week. Several papers dealt with linguistics proper, or the philosophy of language. An interesting evidence of the wide scope of the activities of the American Philological Association is to be seen in the fact that one paper offered an emendation of a passage in the Gothic version of the Bible; another dealt with Middle Iranian, and a third with "Pali Lexicography." Still another dealt with Ibsen's indebtedness to the classics. Another paper discussed "The Ancient and Modern Appreciation of Mountain Scenery." The author, Dr. Walter Woodburn Hyde, of the University of Pennsylvania, held that in the later days the Greeks had such appreciation, whereas the Romans never came to look on mountains, save as something of which to be afraid. Appreciation of mountain scenery was a matter of slow growth. The paper did not, however, enter into a discussion of the reasons which may have helped to determine the attitude of the ancients towards mountains. Some of these, such as the very familiarity of mountain scenery, fear of brigandage, and inability to fight the cold (the matter of which Lowell wrote so well in his essay "On a Good Word for Winter") were pointed out in the debate on Dr. Hyde's paper.

One other paper, on "The Passing of the Sequence of Tenses," by Prof. Roland G. Kent, of the University of Pennsylvania, may be mentioned. It was a vigorous protest against the dropping of the term "sequence of tenses," as recommended in the report on uniform grammatical terminology, to which reference was made in the *Nation* for January 15, 1914. Professor Kent maintained that the paper by Professor Hale attacking, more than twenty years ago, the law of Sequence of Tenses in Latin, had won no favor, and rightly, since it did not successfully challenge the law.

Another paper, by Mr. J. C. Cohoon, of Princeton University, attempted to show that, in the arbitration scene of the "Epitrepontes" of Menander, all the laws of ancient oratory, as laid down in Aristotle, and as subsequently elaborated and illustrated by Quintilian, are fully exemplified.

As I noted a year ago, though the American Philological Association is a national association, considerations of distance and cost of travel prevent many of the members from attending the meetings. The major part of the members live east of St. Louis, and the annual meetings are commonly held east of the Alleghany Mountains. Bearing in mind this point, one finds interest in the following table showing the number of papers that, at the recent meeting, came from the classical staffs of various colleges and universities: Brown one, Chicago one, Cincinnati one, Columbia six, Grove City one, Hampden-Sidney two, Harvard two, Illinois (University) one, Johns Hopkins one, Northwestern three, Ohio State one, Pennsylvania six, Princeton four, Roanoke one, Stanford two, Vanderbilt one, Vassar two, Washington and Jefferson one, Wesleyan one, Virginia one. Three papers were by women. Of these, one dealt with Homer, a second with Vergil, and a third with "A Chronological Study of the Inscriptions of Augustales, Seviri Augustales, and Seviri."

The officers elected for 1915 are as follows: President, Edward P. Morris, Yale; vice-presidents, Carl Darling Buck, Chicago, and Kirby Flower Smith, Johns Hopkins; secretary-treasurer, Frank Gardner Moore, Columbia; executive committee, the foregoing and Charles Knapp, Columbia; Richard Wellington Husband, Dartmouth; Walton Brooks McDaniel, Pennsylvania; John A. Scott, Northwestern; Arthur L. Wheeler, Bryn Mawr.

CHARLES KNAPP.

Notes

The Century Company announces the forthcoming publication of "Pan-Americanism," by Roland G. Usher.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce for publication this month: "Alsace and Lorraine," by Ruth Putnam; "Christianity as Mystical Fact," by Rudolf Steiner; "The Papers of the American Society of Church History," Second Series, Vol. IV, edited by William Walker Rockwell; "The Stewardship of Faith: Our Heritage from Early Christianity" (Lowell Lectures of 1913-14), by Kirsopp Lake; "My Heart's Right There," by Florence L. Barclay.

The following volumes are included in the Macmillans' list of publications during January: "Children of Earth," by Alice Brown; "Mrs. Martin's Man," by St. John G. Ervine; "Modern Religious Movements in India," by J. N. Farquhar; "The Rise of Modern Religious Ideas," by Arthur C. McGiffert; "The Reconstruction of the Church with Regard to Its Message and Program," by Paul Moore Strayer; "The Panama Canal and International Trade Competition," by Lincoln Hutchinson. "The Harbor," by Ernest Poole, is announced for publication in February.

It is not hard to imagine what Lincoln would have felt towards any volume based upon a single address of his and laying down the proposition that "to rightly understand this single character and this one address is to understand humanity, and identify the

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ethical finalities." That feeling must be the feeling of any thoughtful person who peruses even a little of "Abraham Lincoln's Cardinal Traits: A Study in Ethics," by C. S. Beardslee (Badger; $1.25 net). In it, the martyr President, with his Second Inaugural, emerges finally as a god-man of less impressive stature than before, because he is so unreal. This is the greater pity, since a sober analysis of his life and character would have yielded excellent ore.

In the autumn of 1913 Canon Rashdall delivered the West Lectures in the Leland Stanford Junior University. These lectures —three in number—have now been published in book form (Houghton Mifflin; $1 net), under the title "Is Conscience an Emotion?" The book is a popular and simple presentation of the general point of view expounded in the author's "Theory of Good and Evil," and containing little that is new further than an explicit criticism of the ethical views of Westermarck, McDougall, and James. The emphasis of the book is thus largely negative, its thesis being that conscience is *not* an emotion. Just what it is Mr. Rashdall does not fully disclose; for there is a latent ambiguity in his use of the word which is never fully resolved. The criticism levelled against Westermarck—as also that against Hume in the first lecture—is admirable, and the position that moral judgments are based upon emotions of approval and disapproval is analyzed and refuted with a keenness that leaves little to be desired. It is decidedly questionable, however, whether Mr. Rashdall is justified in making no distinction between Westermarck's point of view and that of McDougall. Possibly his failure to do so is due to an ultimate uncertainty in his own positive doctrine. For in his criticisms of McDougall and of James—as well in certain portions of his previous and larger work—he seems almost unable to distinguish between the very tenable position that reason has a great deal to do with moral judgments, and the rather questionable assertion that "our judgments of right and wrong represent distinct, irreducible categories, or ultimate intellectual notions."

"Principles of Taxation," by Hastings Lyon (Houghton Mifflin; 75 cents net) compresses into 128 duodecimo pages a lot of commonsense concerning the subject with which it deals. After defining such terms as price, fee, assessment, and tax, Mr. Lyon takes up the question of the just apportionment of taxation; and argues forcibly that neither of the common theories—the "benefit" and the "ability" theories—is universally valid. He maintains, in the reviewer's opinion correctly, that "people of equal ability to pay taxes may impose different costs" upon the public treasury, and holds that these varying costs should be the principal determinant of the manner in which taxes should be distributed. Intangible property, since it occasions less cost, should be taxed at a low rate, but no reason appears for taxing chattels at a lower rate than real estate. Tangible property should, in general, be taxed at its situs, but this principle should not exempt persons owning property in other jurisdictions from paying some tax at the place of their domicile. Difficult practical questions arise at this point, but our author suggests that a "tax on wealth to cover that part of the total tax which should be paid at the place of the location of wealth irrespective of the residence of the owner, and a tax on income to cover that part of the total tax which should be paid at the place of residence of the owner, irrespective of the location of the property, would be one answer" (p. 82). With the experience of Wisconsin in mind, he might well have said that this is the best answer. The concluding chapters treat of the assessment of taxes, the separation of State and local revenues, the taxation of corporations, and the single tax. In the thirty-nine small pages allotted to them, these subjects cannot be adequately treated, and it would have been better to excise some of them. In his preface Mr. Lyons states that the book is an outgrowth of a report which he had occasion to make, as counsel, to the taxation committee of the Investment Bankers' Association of America, and he anticipates that some readers "will charge the work with prejudice on account of its origin." There doubtless will be such critics, but the book itself is a complete answer to their insinuations. It bespeaks throughout an independent thinker who writes with entire sincerity of purpose. Not a few such men are now in charge of the taxation interests of our large corporations. Their point of view deserves respect, their experience is most valuable, and their coöperation is welcomed by scientific investigators and tax officials.

Even if you are a "sieve" or a "duckback," you will enjoy a perusal of "The Reading Public" (Houghton Mifflin; 75 cents), by the publisher of the *Atlantic Monthly*, Macgregor Jenkins. The above unflattering classification of the readers of our country is developed in an amusingly original way. His criticism of our habits is not only suggestive, but has the fascination of being written by a keen observer who has helped to supply the demand, yet without any esoteric superiority in the point of view or any censorious severity in the style. On the contrary, he talks to you like one of the commuters in his pages —a man who jovially exchanges opinions and experiences because he knows he has something arresting to contribute. Of course he cannot expect full credence, after Henry Sydnor Harrison's revelations, for the grave assertion that editors are not subservient to famous names in declining manuscripts. But few even of those who have received the chill, impersonal printed slip will remain incredulous when he declares that "it is the personality back of the manuscript that often makes for acceptance or rejection." Few magazine readers will skip the many other editorial secrets and views of the public and its taste which he recounts with abounding humor from the genial standpoint of the "man in the street."

The editor of the *American Exporter*, B. Olney Hough, has gathered together a mass of useful and interesting information, under the title "Ocean Traffic and Trade" (La Salle Extension University). The volume includes such topics as kinds of ocean carriers, ships' papers, seaports, and terminal facilities, ocean routes and services, charters and freight rates, agreements, marine insurance, and methods of handling and developing export and import trade. In a work written designedly as a textbook, it is satisfying to find the author coming out flatly against all forms of subsidy for promoting trade. He takes the position that the encouragement of a merchant marine depends primarily on the enactment of navigation laws which will make it possible for American vessels to compete on terms of equality with similar vessels of other nations, and insists that we cannot build up a permanent, prosperous American merchant marine upon any other basis than that of commercial profits. The book is well supplied with illustrative documents, and includes a large-size map of the world's trade routes.

Edward Dudley Kenna, a former vice-president of the Santa Fé Railway, who has resided for many years abroad, has offered in a little volume, entitled "Railway Misrule" (Duffield & Co.) some novel suggestions for the solution of our railway problem. After presenting the present plight of the railways in the manner to which we have grown accustomed during this year of agitation for increased rates, he finds the fundamental causes of present distress not in such superficial influences as Government regulation of rates, or advances in wages, but in the enormous waste that was incurred in the construction originally of unnecessary lines—the sinking of capital. This initial blunder has been aggravated by the passage of the Anti-Trust Act, which makes all efforts towards coöperation and the avoidance of destructive competition futile. Mr. Kenna's solution is the employment of Government credit and the unification of the railways under a single direction, with a preponderant Government interest—compulsory combination under Government guarantee. If such a plan proves not to be feasible, the author sees no alternative but Government ownership, and, though apparently he does not at present favor this recourse, he shows a sympathy with nationalization which is unique among men brought up in the railway service. His most interesting suggestion in this connection is that the amount of capital necessary to put the Government in control is far less than is commonly stated, for only the important systems need to be purchased, and on these control can be effected by possession of a majority of the stock.

The fourth volume of Worthington C. Ford's edition of the "Writings of John Quincy Adams" (Macmillan; $3.50 net) covers the calendar years 1811-13. Adams was still at St. Petersburg, laboring zealously and successfully to protect American trade with Russia from French interference, and reporting with great detail the course of the Napoleonic drama which was being enacted close at hand. American relations with Russia were not, however, supremely important at the moment, and the official correspondence of these three years is without special significance. An elaborate description of a state dinner at the French Ambassador's, whither Adams, observing "a style altogether republican," went "only in a chariot and four, attended by two footmen in livery, and driven by a coachman on the carriage box, and a postillion, between boy and man, on the right side horse of the leading pair"; an entertaining account of his meeting with Madame de Staël, with whom he was evidently charmed, and occasional short disquisitions on the education proper for youth, are agreeable breaks in the monotony of politics, diplomacy, and war. In February, 1811, he was appointed an associate justice of the Supreme Court, a

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place which he wisely declined. Juristic unfitness aside, "I am also," he wrote, "and always shall be, too much of a political partisan for a judge." The War of 1812 he deeply regretted, at the same time considering that Congress, ignorant of the withdrawal of the Orders in Council, was entirely justified in making the declaration. In November, however, he was predicting the early decline of Great Britain, and the likelihood of bankruptcy should the war continue for three years longer. In July, 1913, he learned of his appointment as one of the commissioners to conclude a peace with England, following the proffered mediation of Russia. He did not look for success, and Great Britain presently refused to negotiate. The matter was pending when the year closed, and his often-expressed desire to return to America had still long to wait for fulfilment.

Mr. Graham Wallas in "The Great Society" (Macmillan; $2) has made a very notable contribution to the limited range of good literature in the field of social physiology. His book is keen in its analysis of social impulses, fertile in suggestions at every turn, and written with an informality that keeps the reader's interest sustained. The volume has grown out of some notes which Mr. Wallas put together for use in a discussion-course at Harvard a few years ago; it follows no systematic plan and does not undertake to cover all phases of social organization. The various chapters deal with matters which are somewhat widely apart, such as the relation of environment to government, the conservatism of social habit and the ways of breaking it down, love and hatred as social impulses, the psychology of the crowd, and the organized expression of the popular will. But they all relate more or less directly to the common theme, namely, the forces which, whether they be physical, social, economical, or political, govern the acts of men in the mass. So far as the book makes a special plea at all, it may be termed a protest against the anti-intellectualism of the present-day politician. The author possesses and displays not only a fine philosophic background, but a broad range of social sympathies. His active participation in the political life of London and his intimacy with the daily problems of government enable Mr. Wallas to keep one foot on the ground when he discusses even the most empirical branches of political theory. He is critical at all points, and dissects many of the formulas and shibboleths of sociology with a relentless hand. Yet there is a hopeful tone throughout the book, there are constructive suggestions in every chapter, and the author's keen sense of humor enlivens the entire discussion.

The British and German "White Papers" are reproduced in the separately printed Supplement to the October number of the *American Journal of International Law*—now more than two months late. The *Journal* also discusses the European situation, from various points of view. An editorial deals with "Germany and the Neutrality of Belgium." Another editorial, on "Germany and International Peace," discusses critically the contention of Dr. Kriege, German delegate to the second Hague Conference, that Germany has shown her peaceful disposition in several treaties of arbitration, including one with the United States which our Senate failed to ratify, and certain commercial treaties in which arbitral clauses were inserted. An interesting discussion of our Caribbean policy follows, the *Journal* bringing out Senator Root's contention that intervention was not synonymous with interference with the affairs of the Cuban Government, but was to be based on just and substantial grounds—for the preservation of Cuban independence, and the maintenance of a Government adequate for the protection of life, property, and individual liberty. In signed articles, Pearce Higgins discusses "Armed Merchant Ships," Amaro Cavalcanti "Restrictive Clauses in Arbitration Treaties," Prof. Leo S. Rowe "The Work of the Joint Commission on Panama Claims," Everett P. Wheeler "International Conference on Safety of Life at Sea," Denys P. Myers "The Origin of the Hague Arbitral Courts," and Julius Goebel, jr., "The International Responsibility of States for Injuries Sustained by Allies on Account of Mob Violence, Insurrection, and Civil War"'

Science

A NEW ENGLAND MEDICAL FAMILY.

The Life and Letters of Nathan Smith. By Emily A. Smith. With an Introduction by William H. Welch. New Haven: Yale University Press. $2.50.

It is seldom the lot of any man to found more than one important institution of learning. Such, however, was the fortune of Dr. Nathan Smith, who, a century ago, successively established, or aided in establishing, the medical schools of Dartmouth, Yale, Bowdoin, and the University of Vermont. This volume, by one of his family, was published as a memorial in his honor and in celebration of the centennial of the Yale Medical School. It presents a faithful and intimate record of his life and activities, partly biographic, partly in the unconscious autobiography of his private letters.

Nathan Smith was born in 1762 of vigorous New England stock, and as a lad on his father's farm learned the meaning and practice of industry, thrift, self-reliance, and endured his share of actual hardship. During the later days of the Revolution he performed some frontier military service, for which he was made a captain. He was early filled with zeal to be a doctor, and in 1784 was apprenticed for three years to Dr. Josiah Goodhue, a noted Vermont surgeon of the time. With such preparation, Dr. Smith established himself in practice at Cornish, New Hampshire.

Perhaps this method of medical education, prevalent in his day, impressed him with the need of the systematic teaching which only a school of medicine can afford. At any rate, after two years we find him going to Cambridge to earn a degree of M.B. at the Harvard Medical School, and later to Glasgow, Edinburgh, and London, where he studied for nine months at school and hospital. Immediately on his return in 1797 he was enabled to carry out his project of offering to the prospective physicians of northern New England opportunity to obtain economically the full medical training which he had so hardly and expensively won. He established at Hanover the Dartmouth Medical School, and was not only its founder, but its entire faculty. For twelve years, all the while attending to a busy country practice at Cornish, he taught, examined, and graduated his students, lecturing in anatomy, botany, chemistry, physiology, medicine, surgery, and therapeutics. His vivid methods of teaching aroused the keen enthusiasm of his hearers in the new scientific knowledge which the time was so actively bringing forth. A story is told of President Wheelock, who, after listening to one of Dr. Smith's lectures, began his evening prayer in the College chapel: "Oh, Lord, we thank Thee for the oxygen gas; we thank Thee for the hydrogen gas, and for all the gases. We thank Thee for the cerebrum; we thank Thee for the cerebellum, and for the medulla oblongata."

In 1813 came the foundation of the Yale Medical School, and Dr. Smith became its first professor of physic, surgery, and obstetrics. In New Haven, as at Hanover and Cornish, he labored unceasingly, teaching many hours for meagre fees, constantly fulfilling arduous duties to his many patients. During this time also he still gave some lectures at Dartmouth. Honors and new responsibilities now came upon him. In 1821 he did for Bowdoin and for the University of Vermont what he had already done for Dartmouth and Yale. While continuing his teaching and practice at New Haven, he lectured at Brunswick and Burlington, and exercised a controlling direction over the early years of the new medical schools in those towns. It is small wonder that these incessant and manifold labors at last wore out his vigorous health. Cardiac and apoplectic signs appeared, and in 1829 he died, still poor in purse but rich in accomplishment.

Dr. Smith's professional achievement was remarkable, not merely in the development of medical education in New England, but as a practitioner. He was one of the few who attained eminence in both medicine and surgery. His treatises on "Typhus Fever" and on the "Pathology and Treatment of Necrosis" remain classics in medical literature. He was among the first in America to adopt and practice vaccination. He performed successfully the second ovariotomy and the first staphylorrhaphy in this country. The late Dr. Mumford, in his "Medicine in America," says of Smith:

> His experience was enormous; his observation instant, keen, and accurate; his deductions sound and logical; his exposition convincing. He was full of expedient and common-sense, very modern in his way of looking at disease; never influenced by dogma; sparing in his use of drugs—the ideal country doctor: strong, untiring, devoted; travelling a great circuit of hundreds of miles in that wild, rough northern land; a faithful servant to his people, a tower of strength to a hundred consultants.

All this and more is told in the book before us, but the best is what the doctor tells himself in his letters, fortuitously preserved, now first made public. Written in the formal epistolary style of the day, they are yet fresh and pungent with his personality. They

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reveal his ardent affection and tender solicitude for his young wife and children; his homesickness; his ambitions, fatigues, failures; his modesty in success, his fidelity to friends. Perhaps to a physician the most interesting letters are those to Dr. George Cheyne Shattuck, of Boston, with whom Dr. Smith's relation, as Dr. Welch points out in his introduction, was much the same as that of the great John Hunter with his favorite pupil, Jenner. This group of letters shows Dr. Smith not only as the wise adviser and earnest admirer of his brilliant young colleague, but also as a persistent investigator, a man with the true scientific spirit of research, interested in all things pertaining to his profession and eager to communicate that interest and to receive the suggestion and help of his junior.

Dr. Nathan Smith's four sons and three of his grandsons have also been physicians of distinction. One of the former was a founder of the Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia, and one of the latter an incorporator of the Johns Hopkins University and Hospital at Baltimore. Hardly a family in New England has in so short a time given so many members to the profession, and few have rendered more eminent service to medical education. For the account of this service, for the study of Dr. Smith's versatile career, and for the preservation of the valuable original literary records of his life, this memorial volume is an important contribution to American medical history.

Dr. W. N. Shaw, director of the British Meteorological Office, was elected chairman of a committee, at the International Conference on Smoke Abatement, representative of the Smoke Abatement Societies and of the more progressive municipalities of the United Kingdom, appointed to promote the systematic and scientific study of atmospheric pollution in the urban and industrial districts of England. The actual observations were commenced in March of last year, in twenty-two different cities and towns, the method and standard form of soot- and dust-gauge recommended by the committee being used. The principle of the method used is that of collecting the soot and other impurities that fall by their own weight, or are carried down by the rainfall in one month, in a large funnel of enamelled iron, with a catchment area of four square feet. These soot- and dust-gauges are placed in some central position of the town or district on the ground-level, in open spaces free from wind eddies and from abnormal soot and dust. The collected water and deposit are removed once a month, for measurement and examination by the official city chemist, and the following constituents of the rainfall and solid deposit are recorded: Volume of water collected, total solids, total soluble matter, total insoluble matter, tarry matters, non-tarry carbonaceous matter, sulphates, chlorides, ammonia, and lime. The relationship between the amount of tarry matter and the total carbonaceous matter enables one to judge how far the domestic chimney is responsible for the soot-fall in each locality. Factory furnaces and factory chimneys produce under normal conditions little tarry vapor, for the temperature of the furnaces is sufficiently high to ignite and burn these vapors before they escape into the atmosphere. The greater portion of the tar in town and city smoke comes, therefore, from the coal used for domestic heating and cooking purposes. It is surprising to find that the atmosphere of Birmingham and of many northern towns is considerably dirtier than that of London, which in this respect has a reputation it does not deserve. Malvern is seen to be far the cleanest town in the list, since the total soot- and dust-fall in April and May, 1914, amounted to only 4.45 tons per square kilometre, or to about one-fifth that of London, and one-eighth that of Liverpool during the same two months.

Drama

A SELF-DENYING REBEL.

George Bernard Shaw. By Joseph McCabe. New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

Mr. McCabe, in his "critical interpretation" of Shaw and his message, has not only done a good piece of work, but has set a sane and wise example to future critics of that much overrated, much underrated, and altogether too much berated propagandist. Both the admirers and detractors of Mr. Shaw seem to have devoted themselves to the task of proving that his exaggerations, if nothing else in his constitution, are infectious. Mr. McCabe is a presage of better things. That a plain, even-minded, and cool-headed man should have handled Mr. Shaw's work in a serious and respectful mood is one prognostic; that the respect and seriousness should have emerged intact from the analysis is another.

Mr. McCabe's homage is not based on intellectual agreement. He is apparently rationalist, utilitarian, friendly to science, tolerant of a lowered birth-rate, untouched by asceticism; he carries his vagaries to the scandalous point of entertaining a qualified respect for the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. He finds Mr. Shaw unphilosophical, unscientific, often inconsistent, liable to inroad and capture by eccentric opinions from untrustworthy quarters, in one instance reactionary, on vivisection "appallingly" unfair. It is difficult for a mind not wholly beglamoured by Mr. Shaw's rare gifts to resist the cool, gradual, equable pressure of Mr. McCabe's perfectly friendly but unfaltering and immitigable logic. It is hard not to assent to the critic's regretful conclusion that as "a constructive thinker" Mr. Shaw is a "brilliant failure."

Is Mr. McCabe's admiration, which is as pertinacious as his disagreement, exclusively or mainly the effect of Mr. Shaw's high literary powers? By no means. The critic's enjoyment of the humor, though real, is finite, and, though he devotes about one-quarter of his book to an able and friendly, if not precisely an expert, critique of the plays, nevertheless in the two points which interest him most, the truth of the opinions and the truth of the pictures, these works rarely receive his unqualified approbation. What Mr. McCabe really honors in Mr. Shaw is his destructive criticism, the electrification of an indolent world by the resolve of a powerful though eccentric and erratic mind to test every assertion in a spirit unfettered by dogma or custom or precedent or early training. When Mr. Cabe tells us, moreover, that Mr. Shaw is "a man of the most austere sentiments and lofty ideals," we cannot ignore the emphasis which this phrase derives from its association with the fearless and copious use of discriminating censure.

The Shaw whom Mr. McCabe partly extracts for us, and whom we partly deduce from the analysis of Mr. McCabe, is one of the most singular of recorded personalities. He is the self-denying rebel. The liberty which most men demand for the sake of enjoyment he asks in the name of abstinence. An obligation has two sides: it is a fetter upon will and a restraint upon pleasure. Mr. Shaw's peculiarity lies in his repudiation of the fetter upon will in conjunction with the acceptance and glorification of the restriction on enjoyment. The distinction penetrates all his teaching. He accepts the travail, the sacrifices, of Socialism, but rejects its millennium. He enlarges the function and freedom of sex; he vilifies its pleasures. He demands every license for art; he despises its ministry to enjoyment. He substitutes a Life-Force for a God; that is, he renounces the profits of religion, while he retains and exalts its obligations. He has purified philanthropy, as he understands purity, by dissociating it from amenity, almost from benevolence.

At this point his figure seems about to dilate to prophetic or heroic dimensions, to class itself with John the Baptist, with John Knox, with Tolstoi, with Ibsen's Brand. The enemies—perhaps also the admirers—of Mr. Shaw may reassure themselves. Mr. Shaw is abstinent, and he is altruistic, but neither his abstinence nor his altruism is penitential: the man is not so ascetic as his practice nor so disinterested as his theory. He has been fortunate and peculiar in his ability to draw from purely æsthetic and intellectual resources the degree of happiness which constitutes, so to speak, a moral subsistence. He knows four arts critically, practices one or two, is versed in that form of intellectuality which combines the maximum of stimulus with the minimum of drudgery, and his command of humor is inexhaustible. The intensification of life in these respects helps him to dispense with sensual indulgence, and enables him to combine the pursuit of altruism with the untrammelled exercise of those æsthetic, didactic, and polemic gifts which constitute for him the zest and impetus of life. He belongs in short with the literati, the men for whom utterance is primary, but he is ranged with the nobler section of the literary class by the refusal to content himself with any utterance that does not voice a conviction or promote a good.

To return to Mr. McCabe (who must be absolved from direct responsibility for the

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last two paragraphs), he has the readable and serviceable style of the vigorous thinker who divines instinctively the forms of language which reflect his mood and advance his purpose. In the friction of controversy, he emits sparks of wit, but he resists the temptation to which contemporary wits are subject, that of making an industry of coruscation. A few casual slips may be noted—the writing of "Grace Cuthbertson" for "Grace Tranfield," and "Ralph Copperfield" for "Ralph Nickleby."

"SINNERS."

Concerning the popular success which this play, produced last week by William A. Brady at The Playhouse, is destined to enjoy, there can be no manner of doubt. The present reviewer has seldom seen a more enthusiastic audience on a second night, and when an audience demands that the curtain be raised some score of times at the end of a third act and thereafter continues spasmodic applause during some minutes of the intermission, the voice of criticism may properly be stilled. On the whole, the applause was well deserved, not only for the smooth performance of an uncommonly capable cast, but for the clever work of the dramatist, Mr. Owen Davis.

"Sinners" issues a bold challenge to the critical in that it is defiantly theatrical and deals with a theme that is not only hackneyed but worn absolutely threadbare, being the familiar story of how an innocent young girl came from the country to wicked New York, and how—but only in the nick of time—the brand was snatched from the burning. Even in his method of developing the situation Mr. Davis does not bother himself to depart from the broad outlines of the story sketched by a hundred predecessors. There is the same startling revelation of the kindly heart that may beat beneath the meretricious adornment of ladies of the demi-monde; there is the motif of the mother-love that shields from harm; there is the odiousness of the whited sepulchre from the home town to whom all things are impure; there is the Nemesis that finally overtakes the evil, and the reward that is the just portion of the good characters of the play. Mr. Davis, in fact, says with delightful candor: "Here is my box, with all the old familiar tricks in it; now just watch, and see what I can do with them"—and the result is an astonishingly good entertainment, in the course of which we are quite willing to close our eyes to the movements of the author when he dives down into his box for yet another trick, and are well content to notice only the effect produced. We know that it is trickery, but it is legitimate trickery, skilfully employed, and it is assisted by dialogue that is frequently amusing and sometimes genuinely clever. Mr. Davis is particularly happy in the quickness with which he immediately relieves a tense situation by a flash of humor. The situation catches the audience suddenly by the throat, and before there is time to realize the patent theatricality of it, the tensity is broken by a quaint comment, usually spoken by Miss Florence Nash in the character of Polly Cary.

How much Mr. Davis's play owes to the admirable cast that presents it could only be measured by seeing it played by a company less entirely capable. Each part, except the rather nebulous one of a good doctor, stands out as a well-defined characterization, individual and distinct, and the values of the various characters are singularly level. Emma Dunn's performance of the mother, Mrs. Horton, is an absolutely faithful study of type. Miss Dunn is always exactly in the picture, and in one scene has opportunity of exhibiting the high power of emotional acting which she possesses. Robert Edeson also is never at fault in the rôle, by no means a grateful one, of Bob Merrick, the rich Western young man who is out of place in dissipated company and finally offers a more honorable relationship to the country girl than that which was originally contemplated. Alice Brady plays Mary Horton, the country lass, with the mixture of half-knowledge, innocence, and fear that is required, and is an altogether charming figure. Miss Nash, in the "tough" rôle of Polly Cary, performs with delightful drollery the part of a Greek chorus in her running comments on characters and situations. Walter Walker gives an excellent study of an elderly roué; John Stokes's performance of the villain is properly hypocritical, and John Cromwell conveys well the perplexities of an unfaithful husband. Miss Gertrude Dallas is a sympathetic Hilda Newton, and Frances McLeod contributes an excellent bit of character acting as Mrs. Horton's "help," Sadie.

S. W.

"THE SILENT VOICE."

The material of Gouverneur Morris's story, which Jules Eckert Goodman has made into "The Silent Voice" (Liberty Theatre), was not unpromising for drama. There was a chance for a good character study which, with the talent of Otis Skinner at command, the author might have turned into a powerful representation. But in the play the material is undigested, and has been worked largely for theatric effects. There was no necessity, for example, to resort to moving-pictures, where Starr, on his roof, overlooking Central Park, reads the lips of couples on the benches. The pictures give only snatches of scenes anyhow, and Starr's account of what he sees is sufficient for all purposes.

The story may be briefly told. Montgomery Starr, a wealthy bachelor and musician, of about forty, has suddenly become deaf, and in consequence has been deprived of his main interest in life. But he has learned to read lips, and through the entreaties of an old friend has been heartened to propose to his young ward, Marjorie Blair (Florence Fisher). She, having a great affection for him, is too inexperienced to know that it is not love, and yields to his pleading. Two years pass—the young wife, though loyal to her husband, finds herself infatuated with his nephew, a boon companion of about her age. Follows a feeling of repugnance towards her husband. When he becomes aware of this, there returns to him the old cynicism which was brought on by his deafness. He moves his own quarters to the roof of his house, where, in company with an old man-servant, he lives quite apart from Marjorie. But his discovery that with the aid of strong glasses he can read the lips of persons in the park below, furnishes him with an unexpected interest, and he is moved, through the offices of his servant, who is sent as angel of mercy to those in distress, to "play God" for a while. It is needless to say that this occupation restores his faith, develops his character, and at length gains for him the love of his wife.

Otis Skinner's representation of the deaf man was, on the purely physical side, a bit of excellent acting. His facial expressions, the preternatural brightness and alertness of eye, the occasional misunderstanding of what was said to him, were perfectly in character. Perhaps his cynical jocularity was a trifle overdone. But in the main, he showed the full possibilities of the part, and in flashes gave hints of what he might have done if the rôle had been planned more firmly.

F.

Art

THE CULT OF THE BAROQUE.

Bernini and Other Studies in the History of Art. By Richard Norton. New York: The Macmillan Co. $5 net.

Notable among the revenges of time is it to find the son of Charles Eliot Norton an ardent advocate of the greatest of baroque sculptors. Yet the position is taken on grounds which the elder Norton would hardly have disapproved. "Anything that affected so many thousands of men, which they found beautiful and satisfying to their souls, must be in a measure true, must have in it some portion of ultimate wisdom. Silence or contempt towards it, any feeling but of sympathy with it, shows not a better knowledge, but a duller understanding." Such a book as Mr. Norton's indicates the swing back from that cult of the primitive which has narrowed the art criticism of the past fifty years. Indeed, it is one of the curiosities of opinion that the world has agreed to find vulgar and detestable in painting and sculpture those qualities of full-blown exuberance which it has never ceased to admire in the music and literature of the early seventeenth century. It is well to remind ourselves that Bernini stands or falls with Palestrina, Corneille, and Shakespeare.

After a general essay, in which the power and genius of Bernini are successfully vindicated, Mr. Norton presents two special studies of the master. In the first he describes a remarkable series of small clay models in the Brandegee collection, Boston. These are in many cases the first sketches for famous works; they are new to art history, and their inclusion in the book in excellent heliogravures at once gives it material importance. A similar study of the drawings for the loggia of St. Peter's, from the sketchbook in the Brandegee collection, presents material more familiar, but in reproductions for the first time satisfactory. Bernini conceived the design as containing a crucifixion, a bit of symbolism that casts light upon the mind of an artist who passes for frivolous. Mr. Norton's studies should be enlightening to those who are still in the Ruskinian, neo-Christian stage of appreciation. With regard to the baroque generally, it should be noted that the most robust and the most artistic nations of modern times, Germany and France, have never been ashamed of admiring its finest examples.

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An essay on The Art of Portraiture deals chiefly with Roman busts. There is a long note on the head of Athene which Mr. Norton discovered at Cyrene. To judge by the reproductions, it hardly merits the encomium it receives. The most comprehensive of the essays is a parallel between Phidias and Michelangelo. "Pheidias had less to struggle against than Michael Angelo, and through being able to carry out his ideas unhampered, he had a better effect on his followers than Michael Angelo, whose works are in the main monuments of thwarted purpose. Each sought unceasingly to embody in his works ideals of beauty beyond the influence of contemporary events. In the one case this was possible, in the other not. To the Greek contemporaneity was nothing; to the Italian it was all."

An essay on the vexed topic of Giorgione seems gratuitous in a book otherwise devoted to sculpture. Mr. Norton's list may be most shortly described as a harmony of Cavalcaselle's and Morelli's It does not give confidence in his canons, which are nowhere defined, to find him admitting as Giorgiones such completely characteristic Titians as the Gypsy Madonna and the Temple Newsham portrait. The essay confirms an impression gained from perusing recently the entire Giorgione literature, that we shall gain no certitude on the matter until a loan exhibition brings within four walls the seventy or eighty pictures under discussion. Until that be done, the making of Giorgione lists will continue to be, as it always has been, merest subjectivism.

Throughout, Mr. Norton's book is written with vigor, eloquence, and vivid perception of those permanent social values that underlie all good art. The large octavo is fastidiously made, in every way worthy of its distinguished contents.

The seventeen essays contained in Duncan Phillips's "The Enchantment of Art" (John Lane) are written with a copious enthusiasm that is engaging. Among individual appreciations are Velasquez, Giorgione, Tintoretto, and Watteau. Comprehensive topics are Nationality in Pictures, The Decorative Imagination, Revolutions and Reactions in Painting. On all these matters the author speaks from evidently wide acquaintance and with almost excessive facility. To the theme of Impressionism he constantly recurs. No less than five of the essays carry the word in the heading. He traces the tendency not merely in painting, but in poetry and prose, and finally endeavors to distinguish it from the romantic spirit. Unhappily the word means to him whatever strikes him as genuine and beautiful. So that impressionistic becomes merely a synonym for sincere or good. This appears in such a definition as

> Impressionism cannot be said to represent any one technique nor any one way of viewing nature, but rather all artistic achievements, whatever the method, in which sincere, spontaneous, and forthright impressions are convincingly expressed through the art conceived by the brain and the craft designed by the hand.

Clearly, if impressionism is to mean all art that is not unspontaneous and derivative, the term is too general to have any value. With much youthful charm in his writing, Mr. Phillips's phrases often run away with him, and his enthusiasms, which are generally just, as yet lack any solid analytical basis. It is a volatile kind of criticism to which the comment once made by a guide on amateur flapjacks may apply—it doesn't stick to the ribs. There are a number of well-chosen illustrations and a color plate of a Monticelli at the front.

Because of its originality, "Landscape Gardening," by Ralph Rodney Root and Charles Fabius Kelley (Century; $2 net), is a welcome addition to the works already published on Landscape Gardening. Compiled by its authors from their lectures at two Western universities, it is one of the first fruits of the new movement to provide technical education in Landscape Gardening, comparable to that given in architecture. Messrs. Root and Kelley consider chiefly the principles underlying the art, rather than the practice of the art itself. Because of their special familiarity with this theoretical side, the chapters on design and color are perhaps the most valuable in the book. Insistence is placed on the importance of unity, harmony, and rhythm in design, and of the large part played by leaf coloring in landscape compositions. The too frequent tendency in planting is, of course, to consider the flower, which is at best but an ephemeral feature, while the foliage, which is of more permanent character, is disregarded, and a medley of greens of varying hues and values results. For the general public the sections on special problems, such as school grounds, coöperative landscape gardening, and country estates, will be of interest and afford many valuable suggestions. The illustrations are admirably selected, and like the text have the charm of originality. The plans accompanying the text are, we assume, in some cases intended to stimulate the reader's critical ability, in others to be accepted as standards for his guidance, so greatly do they vary in quality. In a publication that contains so much that is admirable, it is regrettable that more care was not taken in the revision of the manuscript, which is at times distressingly involved.

Finance

EXCHANGE ON LONDON.

On Thursday of last week the rate of exchange on London fell to the lowest level reached at any time in more than seven years. During the past decade, sterling exchange at sight has rarely fallen below 4.84, which is the level around which gold may be profitably drawn from London. It went temporarily to 4.82 in the crisis of the October panic of 1907, and the low rate, combined with a New York premium on currency, brought $100,000,000 gold from Europe. In the autumn of 1906, the rate ranged between 4.84 and 4.83½, and the movement of exchange in our favor, helped by the special deposits of Treasury funds by Secretary Shaw, caused an outflow of $50,000,000 gold from London to New York. Last Thursday's low rate was 4.83½.

While exchange on London was moving thus emphatically in our market's favor last week, exchange on Berlin was so far below the normal gold import point that an equivalent decline in sterling exchange would have fixed the unheard-of rate of $4.47 to the pound sterling, and exchange on Paris was almost at the New York gold import level. The testimony of the foreign exchanges, taken as a whole, was that this country was for the time a creditor nation against the whole outside world.

No such condition could exist if debit and credit were based on the difference between the sum total of our obligations to Europe and the sum total of Europe's obligations to us. But a creditor who does not call for payment or who does not re-sell the obligations which he holds, is not a creditor for purposes of exchange remittances, and Europe has not called for redemption of its American investments. That, however, leaves the question open why sterling exchange, which stood at $5 in October, at 4.89¼ on the first day of December, and at 4.85⅜ on the last day of 1914, should now have swung so violently in our favor.

In our previous history, the fall in sterling to the gold import point has almost invariably occurred in immediate consequence of tight money in Wall Street, which attracted a sudden westward flow of London capital. When the gold point was touched, in October, 1907, New York call money rates stood at 125 per cent., and time loans at 7. In September, 1906, they were quoted respectively at 20 and 6½ per cent. Even in the autumn of 1898, when gold to the extent of $46,000,000 came from London, in response to a sterling rate of 4.84, and when our large wheat exports were ascribed as the main cause, money loaned at 6 per cent. in Wall Street.

The really remarkable fact about the present exchange market is that New York money rates have been falling as rapidly as has the rate of exchange on Europe. At the opening of December call money ruled in New York at 4½ per cent. and three months' loans at 5. Ten days ago they were respectively 3½ and 4½. Last week they fell to 2½ for call and 3¾ for time. The money market was evidently making no bid for foreign capital or foreign gold.

Nor did anybody on Wall Street argue, last week, that it was necessary to get gold from Europe. Our bank reserves were abundantly supplied; the $80,000,000 gold sent to Ottawa since the war began, to the Bank of England's account, having been far more than offset by the release of $300,000,000 reserve money, on the inauguration of the new banking law. When the precise causes for the week's extraordinary movement of exchange in this country's favor were examined, they were found to consist in three things.

Our very large redemption of our foreign obligations, in midsummer and autumn, constituted one. Our very rapidly increasing export trade was another; in three months the estimated export of materials, occasioned primarily by the war, increased $83,900,000 over 1913, and the Government's preliminary esti-

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mate, last week, of the country's total foreign trade in merchandise last month, figured a $110,000,000 excess of exports over imports—which would be an increase of $61,000,000 over that of December, 1913, whereas the export excess of November was $18,000,000 less than the year before, and in October was smaller by $81,000,000. The third active influence in our favor, on the international balance sheet, is only beginning to have its influence. For years past New York has had to remit more than $50,000,000 annually to Europe, to pay for the drafts by American tourists and residents in Europe. But the war has driven these lucrative customers back to their native land.

What is to be the result of this remarkable situation of New York on international account? Theoretically, Europe might settle the account in gold, and some gold will come, in all probability. But gold is more useful to Europe than to us, and the balance is likely to be struck in other ways. It may be effected through borrowing here direct by Europe. It may be arranged through still larger American loans to European dependencies such as Canada. We may anticipate the redemption of short-term American securities, presently to mature in large amount abroad. Or Europe may increase its sales of American securities on our Stock Exchange.

Any one of these several expedients might alter substantially the position of exchange; but it is also probable that, in one way or another, the recourse to these very offsets, conservatively pursued, would mean a further strengthening of this country's economic prestige—to which the spectacular fall in foreign exchange has already testified.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Daring, Hope. Paying the Price. Amer. Tract Co.
Grey, Zane. The Lone Star Ranger. Harper. $1.35 net.
The Other Kind of Girl. Anonymous. B. W. Huebsch. $1 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Chubb, E. W. Masters of English Literature. McClurg. $1.50 net.
Harley, Lewis R. Confessions of a Schoolmaster, and Other Essays. Phila.: Lippincott. $1 net.
Poe, Edgar Allan. Tales and Poems. Charles E. Merrill. 40 cents.
Richardson, N. E. The Liquor Problem. Methodist Book Concern. 50 cents net.
Scott, O. W. How Charlie Became King. Amer. Tract Co.
Shakespeare's Macbeth. Edited by H. J. G. Grierson. Oxford University Press. 1s. 7d. net.
Sherman, S. P. A Book of Short Stories. Holt.
Swift, F. H. The Most Beautiful Thing in the World. Amer. Tract Co.
Tyson, J. Selected Addresses. Philadelphia: Blakiston. $1.75 net.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Burrell, D. J. We Would See Jesus. Amer. Tract Co.
Campbell, James M. The Place of Prayer in the Christian Religion. Methodist Book Concern. $1 net.
Cox, J. C. The English Parish Church. Scribner.
Hughes, E. H. A Boy's Religion. Methodist Book Concern. 50 cents net.
Miller, L. H. Our Knowledge of Christ. Holt. $1 net.
Mitchell, A. Biographical Studies in Scottish Church History. Hale Lectures 1913-14. Milwaukee, Wis.: Young Churchman Co.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Beale, J. H. Bartolus on the Conflict of Laws. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
Brissaud, J. A History of French Public Law. Boston: Little, Brown. $4.50 net. Continental Legal History Series.
Hemenway, H. B. Legal Principles of Public Health Administration. Introduction by J. H. Wigmore. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Company. $7.50 net.
Holdsworth, J. T. Money and Banking. Appleton. $2 net.
Jones, E. Anthracite Coal Combination in the United States. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. Vol. XI.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Bourne, H. E. The Revolutionary Period in Europe (1763-1815). Century. $2.50 net.
Boyd, John. Sir George Etienne Cartier, Bart. Macmillan.
Comfort, W. L. Fatherland. Doran. 25 cents net.
Davis, H. W. C. The Political Thought of Heinrich von Treitschke. Scribner.
Harris, N. D. Intervention and Colonization in Africa. Houghton Mifflin. $2 net.
Singh, N. India's Fighters. London: S. Low, Marston & Co. 3s. 6d. net.

POETRY.

Berry, A. L. A Book of Common Verse. Privately printed.
Braithwaite, Wm. S. Anthology of Magazine Verse. Privately printed.
Ficke, A. D. Sonnets of a Portrait-Painter. Mitchell Kennerley. $1 net.
Hatfield, James Taft. Shorter German Poems. Heath.
Marvin, P. R. Poems and Translations. Boston: Sherman, French. $1.50 net.

SCIENCE.

Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution. 1913. Wash.: Government Printing Office.
Brownlee, R. B., Hancock, W. J., Miller, R. W., and Whitsit, J. E. Chemistry of Common Things. Allyn & Bacon.
Harrington, M. R. Sacred Bundles of the Sac and Fox Indians. Vol. IV. No. 2. Phila.: University Museum.
Healy, W. The Individual Delinquent. Boston: Little, Brown. $5 net.

MUSIC AND DRAMA.

Ashford, F. Sense-Plays and Number-Plays. Houghton Mifflin. 65 cents net.

TEXTBOOKS.

Hitchcock, A. M. New Practice-Book in English Composition. Holt.

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